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2019 | The State of **Social Assistance in Africa**



United Nations  
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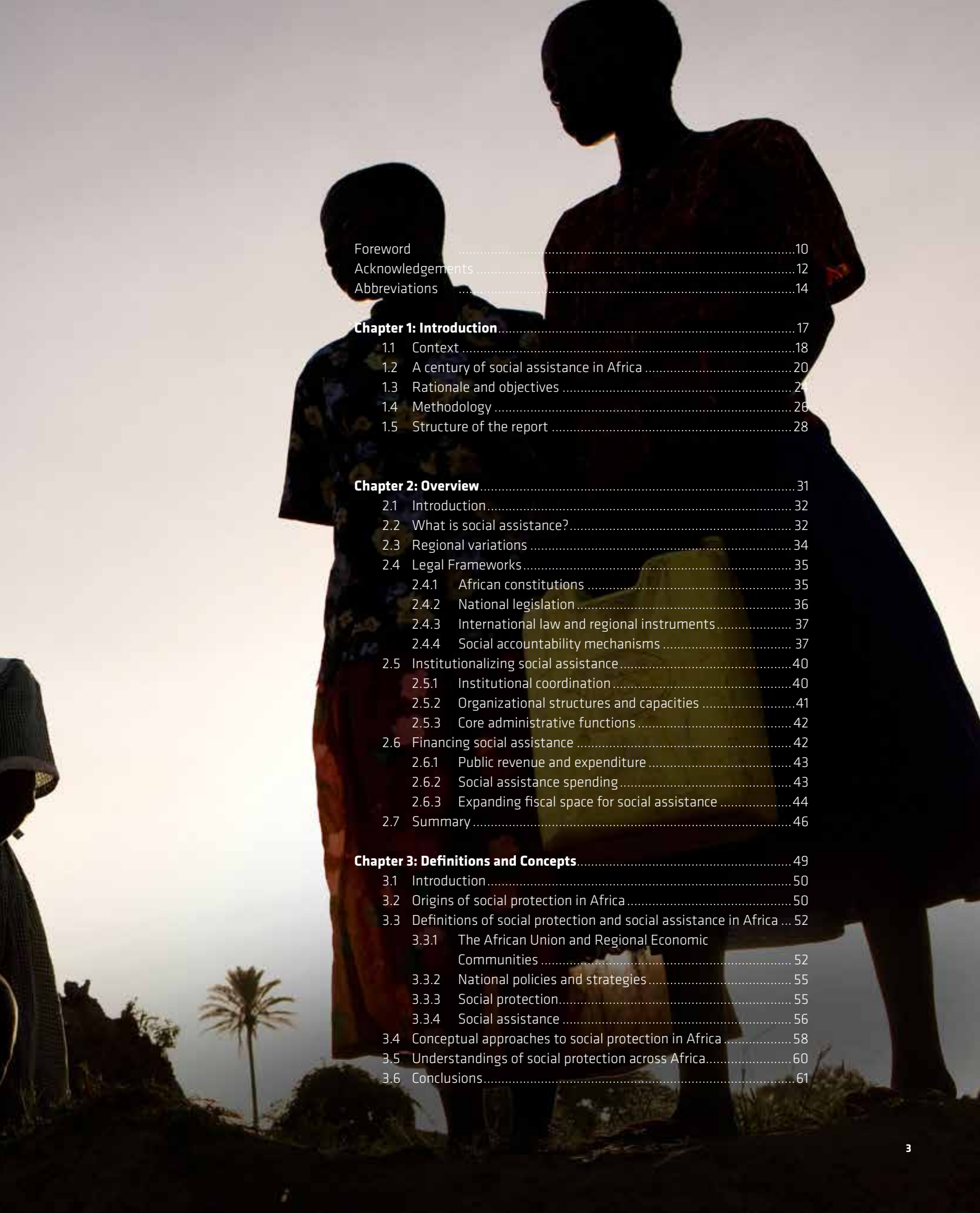
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Assistance in Africa

## FOREWORD

Proclaimed a human right in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966), social protection still is generally perceived as a privilege rather than as a claimable right. But this is slowly beginning to shift. In an era of heightened vulnerabilities, persisting inequalities, climate change, forced migration, protracted and sudden shocks, social protection, including social assistance (cash and food transfers and public works projects), is gaining traction as a policy solution that not only can address poverty but also increase the resilience of households and communities. This is particularly true of African governments, which are increasingly turning to social protection as a means of income redistribution to prevent vulnerable populations from falling into poverty and the poor from falling further behind, thereby preserving development gains of recent decades.

More African governments than ever before are delivering social assistance to the poor and to vulnerable populations. Coverage is still quite limited, but the number of programmes has been rising rapidly in the last decade with the trend across Africa towards broadening and deepening social assistance. The right to social protection is mentioned in many African constitutions, but was rarely translated into laws, policies and programmes until recently. Increasingly, legislation is making the right to social protection legally enforceable and recognizing it as a form of social contract between citizens and the state. In the last ten years, about half of African countries have adopted national

policies or strategies. More stable governance and organizational structures are giving broad-based support and legitimacy to the expansion of social assistance across the continent. What is more, domestic funding for social assistance in Africa is rising and now, on average, exceeds spending by development partners. The largest share of social assistance expenditure goes to the most vulnerable among African societies: older persons, children and persons with disabilities.

International momentum to deliver on the social protection agenda is strong. Social protection is central to the realization of key global and regional development frameworks. The commitment to guarantee at least basic levels of social security is reflected in the ILO Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012 (No. 202). Most recently, social protection has been solidified in the Agenda 2030 as one of the most cross-cutting and broad-based development imperatives that contributes to several SDGs and the Leaving No One Behind aspiration. As such, social protection features in several SDGs: SDG 1 to eradicate extreme poverty; SDG 5 in support of gender equality; SDG 8 to promote decent work and inclusive growth; and SDG 10 as a policy instrument to address income inequality. Furthermore, it contributes indirectly to the achievement of several other SDGs; for example, social protection is fundamental to ending hunger and to promoting access to education, health and basic services (SDGs 2, 3 and 6); and is fundamental to just and inclusive societies (SDG 16).



Likewise, at the continental level, social protection has been repeatedly pronounced in policy documents and statements as a unifying strategy for addressing poverty and vulnerability, including most notably in the African Union Agenda 2063 and the Social Policy Framework for Africa of 2008. Social protection as a right has been expressed in two recent Protocols to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights – on the Rights of the Older Persons in Africa (Article 7) and on Persons with Disabilities (Article 20). The weight that the African Union gives to social protection comes to the fore with the elaboration of the Additional Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Citizens to Social Protection and Social Security, tabled for adoption by Member States later this year, which—once ratified—will become a legally binding instrument.

The motivation behind this report and data platform has been to provide African policymakers, civil servants, researchers, development practitioners and civil society a comprehensive overview of social assistance in Africa across its legal, financing and institutional dimensions. By doing so, we hope we have made the case for strengthening the national architecture for social assistance in Africa as a pathway to eradicating poverty, reducing vulnerability and realizing the commitment of Leaving No One Behind. Drawing on quantitative and administrative data but also on policy documents and position statements by national governments and regional bodies within Africa, this report examines processes and trends in social assistance: the origins and evolution of social assistance over time; the introduction of social protection policies and development of enabling institutions; trends in financing; and progress towards establishing social assistance as a right in Africa. How this is happening is the subject of this report.



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# ABBREVIATIONS

<b>ACHPR</b>	African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights	<b>LEAP</b>	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty
<b>AU</b>	African Union	<b>MCPF</b>	Marginal cost of public funds
<b>CCT</b>	Conditional cash transfers	<b>MGCAS</b>	Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Action
<b>CEACR</b>	Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations	<b>MIS</b>	Management information systems
<b>CEDAW</b>	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women	<b>NGO</b>	Non-governmental organization
<b>CRC</b>	Convention on the Rights of the Child	<b>NSPP</b>	National Social Protection Policy
<b>CRPD</b>	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities	<b>NSPS</b>	National Social Protection Strategy
<b>CSO</b>	Civil Society Organization	<b>ODA</b>	Official development assistance
<b>DSD</b>	Department of Social Development	<b>PSNP</b>	Productive Safety Net Programme
<b>EAC</b>	East African Community	<b>PPP</b>	Purchasing power parity
<b>ECOWAS</b>	Economic Community of West African States	<b>RECs</b>	Regional Economic Communities
<b>ICESCR</b>	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights	<b>ROSCA</b>	Rotating savings and credit association
<b>ICERD</b>	International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination	<b>SADC</b>	Southern African Development Community
<b>ICRMW</b>	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families	<b>SAGE</b>	Social Assistance Grant for Empowerment
<b>IFF</b>	Illicit financial flow	<b>SASSA</b>	South African Social Security Agency
<b>ILO</b>	International Labour Organization	<b>SCT</b>	Social cash transfer
<b>LCA</b>	Life-cycle approach	<b>SDGs</b>	Sustainable Development Goals
		<b>SRM</b>	Social risk management
		<b>TSP</b>	Transformative social protection
		<b>UDHR</b>	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
		<b>UNDP</b>	United Nations Development Programme
		<b>UNICEF</b>	United Nations Children's Fund
		<b>VAT</b>	Value added tax







Chapter 1

# INTRO DUCTION TION





## Chapter 1 | Introduction

### 1.1 Context

Social protection is not new in Africa. Informal social assistance or mutual support, based on principles of reciprocity and solidarity, has existed in Africa for centuries. Although extended families and communities continue to provide essential support in the absence of state-provided social protection, they have limited capacity to provide comprehensive protection to all who need it, especially in contexts of high poverty levels and shocks such as drought or conflict.

Across the world, citizens have increasingly turned to the state to provide social assistance and social insurance. In Africa, governments are taking control of formal social assistance—the focus of this report—and shaping it to meet the needs of poor and vulnerable citizens. This process of increasing recognition in Africa of social assistance as a state duty and—more recently—as a right of citizenship can be divided into three periods or waves.

The first wave of formal social protection was imported into Africa during the colonial period, but mainly in the form of social security provision (e.g. pensions) for public sector employees. After independence these social insurance programmes were usually retained and expanded but did not reach the majority of poor people living in rural areas or those working in the urban informal sector. Social assistance programmes targeting poor people emerged much later in most countries.

Starting in the late 1990s a second wave of social protection came to Africa, introduced by international development partners (United Nations agencies, bilateral and multilateral donors, international

financial institutions and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs)). This phase was characterized by the expansion of social assistance programmes, especially cash transfers targeted to poor and vulnerable groups, which were heavily promoted by development partners in terms of their design, implementation, financing and evaluation (Niño-Zarazúa and others, 2010). While some African governments were quick to adopt this idea and others had already introduced social assistance programmes long before without external support, many governments were sceptical and were initially reluctant to take over the administration, scaling-up and financing of these programmes.

A third wave of social protection in Africa is now emerging. The right to social protection is mentioned in many national constitutions, but was rarely translated into laws, policies and programmes until recently. Increasingly, legislation is being passed that elevates social protection to a right, a form of social contract between citizens and the state. In the last 10 years about half of African countries have adopted a National Social Protection Policy (NSPP) or Strategy (NSPS), several countries have established dedicated line ministries or social protection coordination bodies, and financial contributions to social protection by African governments are rising. Coverage is still quite limited, but the trend across Africa is towards broadening and deepening social assistance.

***What is driving the growth of social assistance in Africa?*** One driver of the expansion is the growing evidence base that social assistance programmes achieve measurable benefits for participants and contribute to meeting national development



objectives and global targets for poverty reduction, reducing hunger and so on. Second is the powerful influence of international development partners, who have invested in impact evaluations to build the evidence base, provided technical assistance to design and implement social assistance programmes and systems, and even financed them, especially in their inception and pilot phases. Most important, however, is the recognition by politicians, bureaucrats and citizens that social assistance provides a range of economic, social and political benefits to programme participants and societies at large.

**How is social assistance growing in significance in Africa?** This trend can be broadly grouped into three areas: expansion, legitimization and institutionalization. The process of expansion varies across and within countries. Expansion can mean introduction of new programmes, scaling up small pilot projects, changing targeted programmes to become universal, or replacing subsidies by cash transfers. The markers of expansion also include the adoption of national policies or strategies and increased commitment of government resources to social assistance budgets (see Box 2). In some countries an increase in the number of social assistance programmes propels specific laws, government structures and processes, while in others legal frameworks prompt the government to institute social assistance and to create the necessary institutions.

In terms of legitimization, the state's responsibility to protect citizens against poverty and vulnerability is reflected in the majority of African constitutions, though a variety of terms is used—social protection, social assistance, social security or social welfare—often interchangeably. Some countries have adopted an explicit rights-based approach while others are pursuing a process of “progressive realization” and others are implementing social assistance programmes on a discretionary basis. Some countries have promulgated a framework law on social protection and many programmes are underpinned

#### BOX 1. Key concepts

Chapter 3 will review the definitions of **social protection** and **social assistance** found in African policy documents. These key concepts can be broadly understood as follows.

**Social protection** is an umbrella term denoting a set of policies, instruments and actions, either by state (formal) or non-state (informal) actors that help address poverty and vulnerability. Social assistance and social insurance are the two main key components of social protection systems.

**Social assistance** refers to non-emergency transfers (conditional or unconditional), either in cash or in kind, designed to cover the needs of individuals or households living in poverty or vulnerability. Formal social assistance is provided by the state. Informal social assistance is provided by non-state actors, including families, communities, private sector, and non-governmental organizations.

#### BOX 2. Markers of domestication of social assistance in Africa

The report identifies several markers associated with an increased national ownership over provision of social assistance:

1. Expansion in the number of social assistance programmes, their scope or reach.
2. Anchoring the right to social protection or social assistance in constitutions and laws.
3. Adoption of national policies or strategies on social protection.
4. Commitment of domestic financing for social assistance.
5. Establishment of national institutions, structures and process to govern the delivery of social assistance programmes.

by legislation that makes government accountable for delivering social assistance to all eligible citizens. Mechanisms are emerging that empower citizens to claim their right to social assistance. These include an explicit human rights-based approach in laws and policies, social accountability mechanisms and grievance procedures attached to specific programmes, the court system, and the actions of independent and campaigning civil society.

Social assistance is also becoming institutionalized within African countries in a range of ways. In terms of government structures, many countries have established dedicated ministries or agencies that are mandated to deliver social assistance programmes. To improve implementation efficiency, systems are being established for targeting and registration of programme participants, payment mechanisms, and management information systems (MIS). Finally, government investments in human resources include recruiting more administrators and social workers and strengthening capacity through training.

### ***Where is social assistance expanding in Africa?***

Progress is not uniform across all countries and regions throughout the continent. As detailed in the 55 country profiles included in this report, social assistance programmes have been scaled up to national coverage and full national ownership (meaning they are designed, implemented and financed domestically, with minimal external support) in several countries of Southern and East Africa. In West Africa coverage and reach are much less and the influence of development partners is strong. In most Central African countries there is very little formal social assistance, and in North Africa other forms of provision remain strong, such as subsidies and Islamic charity, but social assistance programmes are also expanding. Overall, even if progress is patchy, the momentum towards expanded coverage of social assistance is continuing.

## **1.2 A century of social assistance in Africa**

Social assistance programmes are defined in this report to include cash transfers (both unconditional and conditional), food transfers (but not school feeding schemes or emergency food aid) and public works projects. This section reviews social assistance programmes that were operational in 2015, clustered by the decade of their first introduction, from the 1920s to 2015.

Figure 1 reveals two clear patterns. First, social assistance has a long history in the southern part of Africa. The oldest social assistance programmes were introduced in South Africa almost 100 years ago, in the 1920s, followed by Namibia—then under South African administration—in the 1930s. The map gets lighter moving northwards—Botswana and Eswatini (formerly Swaziland) launched their first social assistance programmes in the 1980s, Zimbabwe and Mozambique in 1988 and 1990 respectively. In the north of Africa, Egypt, Algeria and Tunisia also introduced some form of social assistance before 1990.

The second pattern is revealed by the lighter colours, signifying that social assistance was introduced to these countries only in the 1990s or 2000s. Discounting countries with no available data, the light shading stretches across the central belt of Africa, from Senegal and The Gambia in the west to Djibouti and Madagascar in the east. This group includes several of Africa's largest and most populous countries, including Nigeria, Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Ethiopia and Tanzania. Social assistance in these countries has a relatively short history. In some cases, there are gaps in the history—social assistance was introduced by a colonial administration but discontinued after independence, until it was recently revived. The important point is that all these countries do now have at least one functioning social assistance programme, mostly as a consequence of the rapid diffusion of social cash transfers throughout Africa since the late 1990s (Leisering, 2019).

This acceleration in social assistance programmes is reflected in the fact that fewer than 40 programmes currently operational in Africa were initiated during the 20<sup>th</sup> century. This number more than doubled to over 100 with the launch of more than 60 programmes in the early 21<sup>st</sup> century. This recent wave of social assistance can be clearly seen in Figure 2, which identifies 43 new social assistance programmes introduced in Africa between 2010 and 2015—more in this half-decade than in any previous decade. Note that Figure 2 does not capture programmes that were launched but subsequently closed or were redesigned and renamed, so this rapid expansion could also reflect the fact that programmes in Africa tend to have short lifespans. In Ethiopia, for example, the Productive Safety Nets Programme (PSNP) was launched in 2005, but it built on a long history of social assistance in Ethiopia, notably the Employment Generation Scheme and Gratuitous Relief which were operational in the 1980s and 1990s and correspond to Public Works and Direct Support in the PSNP.

Disaggregating the distribution of programmes in Africa by region—Central, East, North, Southern and West Africa—reveals an interesting shift over time. Until the 1990s, almost all social assistance programmes that are still operating today were found in Southern Africa (starting in the 1920s) and East Africa (starting in the 1940s). The first programme in North Africa was launched in the 1980s, the first in West Africa came in the 1990s, and there were no programmes at all in Central Africa before the 2000s. However, new programmes have proliferated in all five regions since 2000 (see Figure 3). Having introduced the greatest number of new programmes almost every decade since the 1920s, Southern Africa (with 12 new programmes since 2000) and East Africa (19 new programmes) were outstripped by West Africa in this most recent period (28 new programmes since 2000).

Despite this recent proliferation, West Africa has not become a dominant region for social assistance in Africa. Being much newer, these programmes are

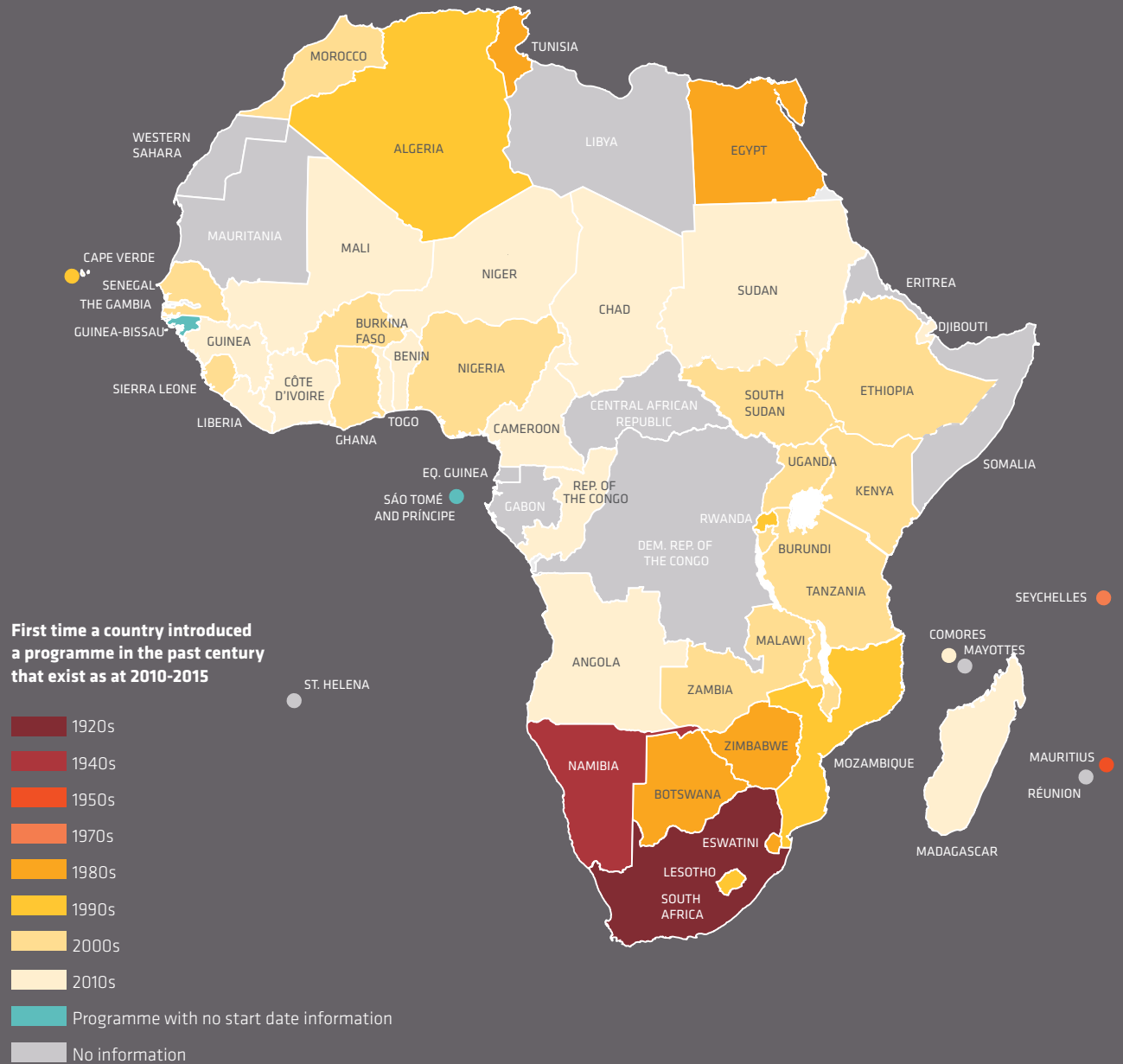
not deeply embedded in national policy or seen as part of a social contract between governments and citizens. Many are pilot projects, externally designed and financed, with only a few hundred beneficiaries. By contrast, programmes in East and Southern Africa are larger in scale (even if they started as pilot projects) and have been running much longer; many are nationally owned, often financed out of domestic fiscal resources, and are *de facto* or *de jure* rights based. They have become part of the social contract and could not be closed without massive popular protest.

Two qualifications must be mentioned. Firstly, differences in the number of countries by region must be taken into consideration (see Box 5 for the African Union (AU) regional classification). With 15 countries, West Africa averages about 2 programmes per country, as does East Africa with 14 countries. Southern Africa, with 10 countries, has just over 3 programmes per country. Central Africa and North Africa, with 9 and 7 countries respectively, average less than one programme per country. Secondly, as noted, many of the newer programmes are small and fragmented, and cannot be compared to long-running, well-coordinated national programmes.

Although food aid was the dominant response to food insecurity and poverty in Africa in the past, the recent trend in social assistance programming has been away from food transfers and towards cash transfers. This is evident in Figure 4, which shows that almost three-quarters of all social assistance programmes in Africa in 2015 took the form of cash transfers, and only a tiny minority were food transfers. Most of the remaining programmes recorded were public works.

Cash transfers are the leading social assistance instrument in all regions, except for Central Africa where public works are slightly more prevalent. Public works are the second most popular instrument in every other region. This corresponds to a common division in social assistance systems, where cash or food transfers are given to vulnerable groups

**FIGURE 1.** Introduction of currently operational social assistance programmes in Africa, by decade and country

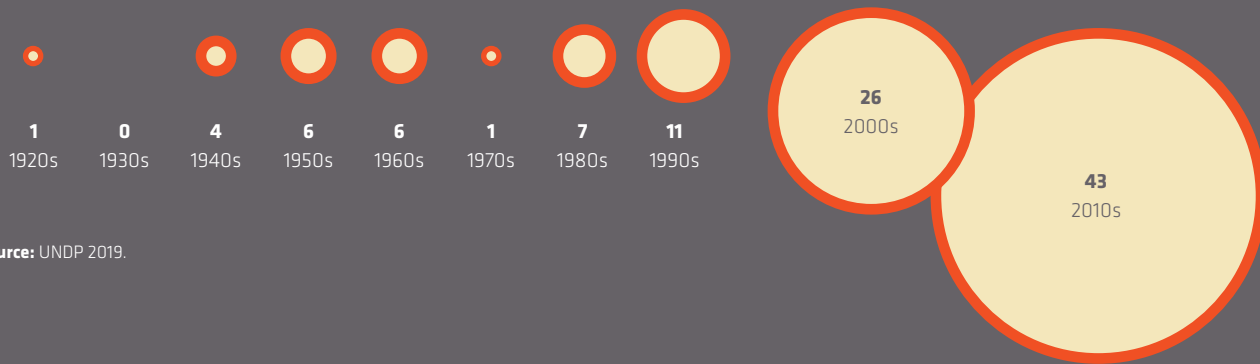


**Source:** UNDP 2019.

**Note:** Map refers to social assistance programmes run by governments (many with assistance from development partners) that remain in operation as of 2010-2015. Programmes run purely by NGOs or other non-state actors without government involvement are excluded. Pilot programmes are included.

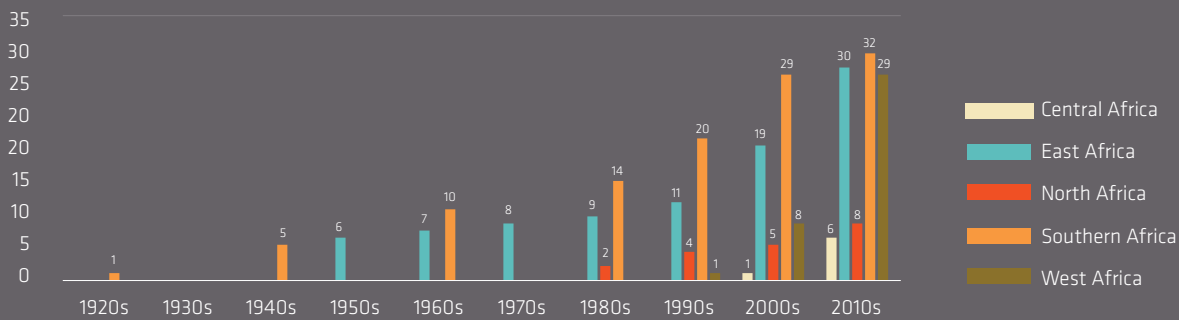
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**FIGURE 2.** Social assistance programmes operational in Africa as at 2010–2015, by start date



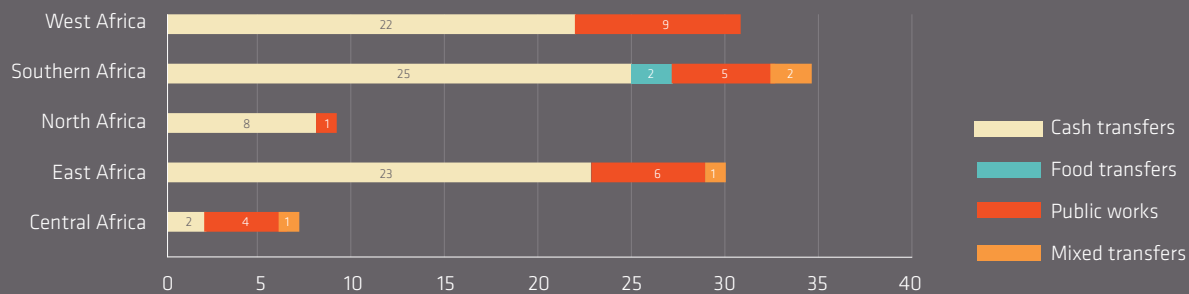
Source: UNDP 2019.

**FIGURE 3.** Social assistance programmes operational in Africa as at 2010–2015, cumulative by start date and region



Source: UNDP 2019.

**FIGURE 4.** Type of transfers in programmes, per region



Source: UNDP 2019.

with limited labour capacity (notably children, older persons and persons with disability) and temporary employment on cash- or food-for-work projects is offered to working-age adults with labour capacity (e.g. underemployed informal sector workers or poor farmers). Programmes such as the PSNP in Ethiopia and the Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme in Rwanda combine both, with public works as the “livelihood promotion” component and regular cash transfers as the “social assistance” component.

In Africa, cash transfers tend to be unconditional – in contrast to conditional cash transfers (CCTs), which apply conditions based on participants’ behaviour. In Southern Africa and East Africa, for example, we recorded 25 and 20 unconditional cash transfer programmes, respectively, but only 2 CCTs in each region. However, several recently introduced programmes in West Africa are CCTs (16 unconditional cash transfers and 6 CCTs).

All countries in Southern Africa (10/10), almost 90 percent in West Africa (13/15) and close to 80 percent in East Africa (11/14), have at least one type of cash transfer programme. In Central Africa (5/9) and North Africa (4/7) the proportion is just over half.

### **1.3 Rationale and objectives**

While the literature on social assistance in Africa is growing rapidly, not many publications give a comprehensive account from the perspective of evolving national institutions and systems. This publication attempts to fill this gap. The report documents Africa’s ongoing experience with extending social assistance programmes, ensuring that they are underpinned by a legal foundation elaborated within a social contract, are implemented by capable institutions and are financed from domestic resources. These examples and experiences should be useful to countries that are extending their own social assistance provision.

Experience from across the world shows that stable, capable national institutions are essential to ensure the sustainability, predictability and political legitimacy of social assistance provision. This report makes a case for creating or strengthening the national architecture for social assistance in Africa, as a pathway to the reduction of vulnerability and poverty, while also promoting social inclusion.

In practical terms, institutions that exert the largest influence over the welfare of the poor are those that decide who receives transfers under what mandate, how they are managed and how much reaches poor and vulnerable persons. Consequently, the thematic chapters of this report discuss three institutional pillars of social assistance in Africa and markers of the anchoring of the social assistance project in national agendas, namely: legal frameworks; institutions (mechanisms and systems for delivering and managing social assistance); and financing.

Out of the recent overview publications on social protection, three are briefly reviewed in Box 3. The International Labour Organization’s (ILO) *World Social Protection Report 2017–19* and the World Bank’s *The State of Social Safety Nets 2018* are global in scope, while the World Bank’s *Realizing the Full Potential of Social Safety Nets in Africa* focuses on Africa. The ILO and World Bank publications present a great deal of statistical data in the form of comparative tables and figures that rank countries and regions in terms of indicators such as social protection spending, coverage, incidence, and poverty reduction impact, sometimes disaggregated by instrument (e.g. social pensions). This report offers a different perspective, drawing on quantitative data but also on policy documents and position statements by national governments and regional bodies within Africa. It also examines processes and trends: the origins and evolution of social assistance over time; the introduction of social protection policies and development of enabling institutions; trends in financing; and progress towards establishing social assistance as a right in Africa.

This publication and the dataset aim to inform and inspire African policymakers, civil servants, researchers and development practitioners to improve the social assistance systems in their countries by learning what others do and what works.

They can also be used as an advocacy tool to promote the African Union social protection agenda, and social protection-related Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly in monitoring whether the promise of leaving no one behind is realized in

### **BOX 3.** Recent publications reviewing social assistance in Africa

#### **World Social Protection Report 2017–19**

The ILO uses the terms “social protection” and “social security” as synonyms, defined as including both social insurance (contributory schemes) and social assistance (non-contributory tax-financed benefits). “This ILO flagship report provides a global overview of recent trends in social protection systems, including social protection floors. It analyses the current state of social protection for children, for women and men of working age, and for older persons, following a life-cycle approach. Based on new data, the report offers a broad range of global, regional and country data on social protection coverage, benefits and public expenditures on social protection” (ILO, 2017: xxix). In a section assessing regional trends, the report notes that “Africa is the continent where the greatest proportion of the population does not have access to social protection and adequate health care, and where human needs are largest” (ILO, 2017: 121).

**Source:** ILO 2017.

#### **The State of Social Safety Nets 2018**

The World Bank uses the terms “social safety net” and “social assistance” as synonyms. This report “monitors the state of social safety nets around the world by presenting key global social safety net statistics on spending, coverage, benefit level, and poverty/ inequality impact” (World Bank, 2018: xvii), based on data from the World Bank’s database Atlas of Social Protection Indicators of Resilience and Equity (ASPIRE). The 2018 report covers a range of topics, including trends in spending levels and coverage of social safety nets across the world, impacts on poverty and inequality, and two specific issues: social assistance and aging; and adaptive social protection. The report finds that, across global regions, spending per capita on social safety nets or social assistance is lowest in sub-Saharan Africa, where less than a quarter of the population receives any form of social assistance.

**Source:** World Bank 2018.

#### **Realizing the Full Potential of Social Safety Nets in Africa**

This report, also from the World Bank, reviews the rapid recent increase in social assistance programmes and coverage in Africa, discusses innovations such as the use of technology in targeting, scalability for shock responsiveness and linkages to productive inclusion. In addition to these technical design issues, the report focuses on “three critical areas”: the role of politics (achieving strong political support for social safety net programmes); effective institutions (essential for efficient and coordinated implementation); and sustainable financing (increasing resources for reliable and timely delivery).

**Source:** Beegle, Coudouel, and Monsalve 2018.

practice. Civil society organizations might find the report helpful for enhancing the accountability and quality of programmes and to advocate for rights. It is our hope that the social protection research community will also find the report a useful resource to produce its own analyses using our dataset.

#### **1.4 Methodology**

This report observes and describes what is happening with social assistance at policy level and on the ground in African countries. Our sources of information include national documents, such as constitutions, laws, national social protection policies or strategies, administrative documentation relating to specific programmes, as well as a dataset that profiles 106 social assistance programmes, drawing on major datasets of social assistance in Africa (see Box 4).

The report focuses on social assistance as one of the two key pillars of social protection, alongside social insurance which is not discussed in this report. Social insurance, based on contributions by employees and employers through a formal employment relationship, covers only a fraction of African workers, who work predominantly in the informal economy or are self-employed (e.g. as smallholder farmers).

The report covers the whole of the African continent, a total of 55 countries. Following the African Union's country classification, the report differentiates between five geographical sub-regions: North Africa, West Africa, Central Africa, East Africa and Southern Africa (see Box 5).

There are numerous definitions of social protection and social assistance. Rather than choosing one definition of social assistance from the literature, we have surveyed its meaning in national and regional legal, policy and programme documents (Chapter 3). The dominant understanding in African policy documents is that social protection and social assistance are the responsibility of the government and thus we only feature programmes

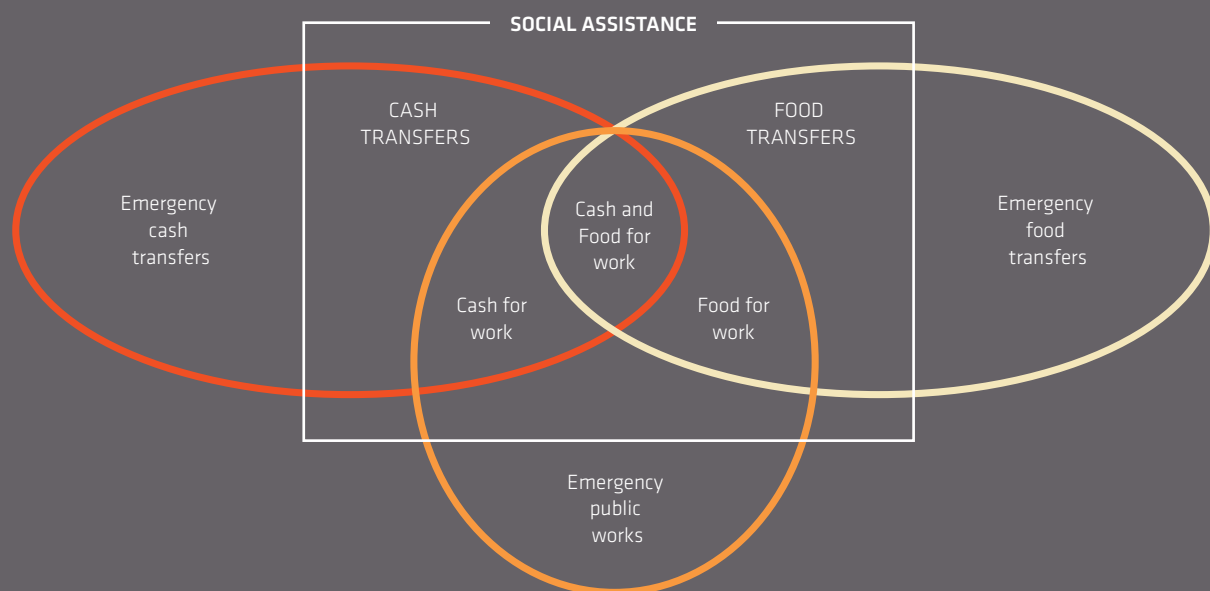
in our database that are managed by the state (with or without financial or technical support from development partners). Furthermore, because we are concerned with programmes that implement cash transfers, food transfers and public works in a predictable and sustained manner, we have omitted emergency programmes, such as food aid or short-term cash-for-work projects, due to their short-term and *ad hoc* nature. For the same reason, we have not included pilot projects that might or might not continue beyond their initial phase. Food transfers in our database exclude school feeding programmes, which though widespread in Africa, typically fall under the purview of ministries of education and not the ministries responsible for social protection. In a similar vein, agricultural inputs, subsidies and fee waivers, which are sometimes considered as social protection instruments (but not as social assistance), fall outside the scope of this report.

The national documents have adopted conceptual approaches to social protection and social assistance that originate in the international policy discourse of the 2000s: the life-cycle approach; transformative social protection; or the social protection floor. These frameworks complement and overlap with each other. The objectives of social assistance, as stated in national policy documents, include reducing poverty and addressing specific types of vulnerability, such as those associated with old age or disability or child-rearing. This finds its expression in the way countries identify programme participants, where the poverty criterion is generally applied in addition to the vulnerability criteria.

In this publication, social assistance refers to non-emergency, regular and predictable transfers (conditional and unconditional), either in cash or in kind, designed to cover the needs of individuals or households living in poverty and/or in a state of vulnerability (see Figure 5). Social assistance is publicly funded (either through public revenues, aid or loans, see Chapter 6), as opposed to social insurance that is co-funded by contributions from employers, employees and the state.



**FIGURE 5.** State-provisioned social assistance programmes



**BOX 4.** Major datasets on social assistance in Africa

A. Barrientos (2018). Social Assistance in Low and Middle Income Countries Dataset (SALMIC). Beta version Africa Region.

IPC-IG (2016). Social Protection in Africa: Inventory of Non-Contributory Programmes. The Inventory maps social protection programmes that were in place in Africa by 2015 and were fully, or partially financed, designed or implemented by governments.

ILO (2019). Social Security Enquiry. The Enquiry collects, stores and disseminates comparable statistical data on social security worldwide, including the receipts and expenditure of social protection programmes.

World Bank, ASPIRE: The Atlas of Social Protection Indicators of Resilience and Equity.

**BOX 5.** The African Union regional classification<sup>a</sup>

**Central Africa** (9 countries): Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, São Tomé and Príncipe.

**East Africa** (14): Comoros, Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Rwanda, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Uganda, Seychelles, Tanzania.

**North Africa** (7): Algeria, Egypt, Libya, Mauritania, Morocco, Western Sahara, Tunisia.

**Southern Africa** (10): Angola, Botswana, Eswatini, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

**West Africa** (15): Benin, Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, Côte d'Ivoire, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo.

**Source:** The African Union Commission n.d.

<sup>a</sup> **Disclaimer:** The AU regional classification above does not necessarily reflect UN policy.

### 1.5 Structure of the report

This Introduction has identified three phases or “waves” of social protection in Africa, ending with the current phase, with Africa recognizing social assistance as being both a regional and national agenda item. It tracks the expansion and spread of social assistance programmes over the past century, drawing on the dataset that was constructed for this report. Finally, this chapter presents the rationale, objectives and structure of this report.

The second chapter, Chapter 2, Overview, serves as a summary of the key themes and findings of the report. It is structured in a similar way to the overall report, with sections addressing definitions of social assistance, regional variations, legal frameworks, institutionalizing social assistance and financing social assistance.

Chapter 3, Definitions and Concepts, analyses why social assistance emerged in Africa and how social protection and social assistance are defined and interpreted in the African context. The chapter first reviews the various forms of mutual support mechanisms that have existed in Africa for centuries outside the government domain. Second, based on a review of national and regional policy documents, the chapter sheds light on contemporary definitions and conceptual frameworks of social protection. Social assistance is then singled out as one of the pillars of social protection and a discussion follows on its objectives, including target groups, instruments and strategies. Chapter 3 concludes with a brief discussion on sub-regional approaches to social assistance across the five regions.

The next chapter builds on the growing importance of anchoring social assistance in national legal frameworks, including constitutions, laws and ratified international instruments. Drawing from these documents and other literature, Chapter 4, Legal Frameworks Informing Social Assistance, discusses the rapidly evolving national legal instruments for social assistance as well as

the application of relevant international legal instruments. It also looks at existing and emerging governmental and non-governmental mechanisms that help citizens claim their right to social protection, including social accountability and complaint and appeal mechanisms.

The existence of permanent and capable state institutions is another marker of the domestication of social assistance in Africa (see Box 2). Chapter 5 explores recent trends of institutionalization of social assistance in countries across Africa. It provides insights into the policy and strategic frameworks for social assistance and the role of different stakeholders. It further looks into coordination mechanisms, delivery structures and organizational capacities. The chapter finishes by presenting different operational functions of social assistance.

Questions pertaining to the financing of social assistance, including the size of the public budget, the role of development partners within the financial envelope, and crucially, how countries might increase their social assistance funding, are discussed in Chapter 6.

The final part of the report contains 55 Country Profiles. In one page per country, we present key indicators of social assistance as well as a short description of the evolution of social protection and social assistance. In most countries under colonial rule, the social protection system started with the introduction of European welfare state policies in the form of employment-related insurance (e.g., pensions and unemployment benefits). However, they were designed to protect civil servants rather than the poor. The country profiles then describe the current state of social assistance in each country by listing the main programmes, participants and transfer amounts.

This publication is accompanied by a dataset that was compiled from four open access databases (see Box 4) that has been used throughout this report.<sup>1</sup> The variables and indicators in the dataset are indicative of the four aspects of social assistance analysed in this publication, which are policies and programmes (Chapters 1 and 2), legal frameworks

(Chapter 4), institutionalization (Chapter 5) and financing (Chapter 6). The dataset also includes general indicators, including macroeconomic variables related to social assistance. There was additional online data collection of social protection policies and laws in African countries.

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<sup>1</sup>The dataset is available online at <http://www.social-assistance.africa.undp.org>.

Chapter 2

# OVERVIEW





### 2.1 Introduction

Social assistance is a relatively recent addition to the policy agenda in Africa, but the principles of redistribution, reciprocity and social solidarity that underlie social assistance have been widely practised for centuries. In precolonial Africa, informal mechanisms provided essential support to extended family and community members who were unable to meet their subsistence needs (Devereux and Getu, 2013). Many of these “traditional solidarity mechanisms” (Comoros PNPS, 2014) still operate today. However, they are weakening under processes of modernization and they are unable to provide adequate support to everyone who needs it, especially in response to large shocks that affect entire communities, such as a drought-triggered food crisis. Also, during the colonial period forms of social insurance inspired by the European system, such as employment-related pensions were introduced to Africa, but usually to provide protection to the expatriates and local officials in the colonial administration, rather than the poor, who were left out. This is why the state, with its mandate and obligation to protect the well-being of all citizens and residents, is increasingly stepping up to deliver social assistance to poor and vulnerable people. How this is happening is the subject of this report.

This overview chapter provides a summary of the full report. It starts by answering the definition question – “What is social assistance?” – drawing mainly on African policy statements. Next it considers legal frameworks that underpin social assistance, from national constitutions and relevant legislation, to regional instruments and international law, before concluding with social accountability mechanisms.

The institutionalization of social assistance requires multi-level coordination and organizational capacity to implement core functions such as targeting, registration and payments. Finally, a discussion of financing social assistance includes an analysis of public revenue and spending patterns in Africa, as well as an assessment of the options available to governments to increase fiscal space.

### 2.2 What is social assistance?

In the international literature social assistance (also called social welfare, or social safety nets) is one of the two main branches of social protection, the other being social insurance (sometimes called social security). Social assistance consists mainly of publicly funded transfers of cash or food to poor and vulnerable people. Social assistance schemes include child benefits, disability grants, social pensions, food vouchers and public works. Apart from public works, these programmes target non-working cohorts; working adults get tiny allocations of social assistance budgets. Social insurance, on the other hand, targets mainly workers or retired workers. It provides compensatory income triggered by loss of income or livelihood, for example due to retrenchment or retirement. Social insurance schemes include unemployment benefits, community-based health insurance and employment-related pensions. Unlike social assistance, social insurance usually requires contributions to be paid before claims can be made. Broader definitions of social protection add labour market programmes such as youth employment subsidies, access to basic social services such as fee-free education, and social transformation measures such as anti-discrimination policies for social inclusion of marginalized groups.

The African Union (AU) does not favour one definition and has not proposed an “African” definition of social assistance. However, in its Social Policy Framework for Africa the African Union defines social protection as “responses by the state and society to protect citizens from risks, vulnerabilities and deprivations” (AU, 2008: 9). It lists a range of interventions that it classifies as social protection, including social welfare (i.e. social assistance), social security, access to stable income and secure access to education and health care. Social protection is seen as having many benefits, notably reducing inequality and intergenerational poverty, but the primary purpose is “to ensure minimum standards of well-being” (AU, 2008: 9).

Within Africa, different understandings of social assistance and social protection are evident, and at least two of the African Union’s eight Regional Economic Communities have produced their own definitions. The Southern African Development Community’s (SADC) Code on Social Security (SADC, 2008) defines social protection as encompassing “social security and social services, as well as developmental social welfare”, the aim being “to protect individuals against life-cycle crises that curtail their capacity to meet their needs”. Social assistance is a specific form of social protection, “which provides assistance in cash or in kind to persons who lack the means to support themselves and their dependants”. The East African Community defines social protection in its Child Policy (2016) as: “A set of public policies, programmes and systems that help poor and vulnerable individuals and households to reduce their economic and social vulnerabilities, improve their ability to cope with risks and shocks and enhance their human rights and social status”.

Coming to the national level, it is a striking fact that in the year 2000 no African country had a National Social Protection Strategy (NSPS) or Policy (NSPP). By 2010 only four countries had a NSPS or NSPP, but this number rose to 29 in 2017, more than half of all countries in the continent. The incorporation of

social protection—including social assistance—into national policy frameworks is a powerful indicator of deepening institutionalization and national ownership, even though development partners strongly supported these policy processes. Most definitions in these documents recognize social protection as a government responsibility—“policies and programs, implemented as part of public action” (Liberia NSPPS, 2013) – sometimes in partnership with non-state actors—“public and private initiatives” (Rwanda NSPS, 2011), “formal and informal interventions” (Ethiopia NSPP, 2012). Some countries recognise the role of “traditional” social protection—“informal community support and extended families” (Kenya NSPP, 2011).

The primary objectives of social protection are understood in most African policy statements as being to reduce vulnerabilities (e.g. due to disability or old age), to manage economic and social risks, and to alleviate poverty. Related objectives include building resilience and reducing food insecurity. This suggests that social protection serves both as a safety net against livelihood shocks or chronic vulnerability and as a poverty reduction instrument. Several strategies refer to ensuring pro-poor access to social services, especially health and education.

Most African NSPPs and NSPSs do not frame social protection as a right. Exceptions include Mozambique, Zimbabwe and Zambia—“All Zambian citizens have the right to Social Protection” (Zambia NSPP, 2014). Occasionally social protection is seen as a means of “guaranteeing minimum levels of human dignity” (Côte d’Ivoire SNPS, 2013).

The most common target group for social protection in African definitions is “the poor”, “the poorest”, or “extremely poor people” (Madagascar PNPS, 2015), followed by “vulnerable groups”, usually understood as demographic categories—“the youngest, the oldest, the disabled” (Central African Republic PNPS, 2012). Social vulnerability or marginalization is mentioned infrequently—“socially excluded segment of the society” (Lesotho NSPS, 2014). Very few national



policies emphasize that social protection is for everyone– “the entire population” (The Gambia NSPP, 2015)–and not only for the poor and vulnerable groups.

Social assistance is also specifically defined in some African policies, for example Zimbabwe’s– “Social assistance is a non-contributory form of social security which is financed from government revenue” (Zimbabwe NSPPF, 2016). Social assistance refers to cash for food transfers– “non-contributory, regular and predictable cash or in-kind transfers” (Sierra Leone PFSP, 2009)–but can also extend to public works, health subsidies and fee waivers for basic social services.

Apart from defining social protection and social assistance, most African NSPS and NSPP documents draw on conceptual frameworks from the international literature. Four frameworks are most popular.

**Social risk management (SRM)** dominated social protection thinking in the early 2000s. SRM conceptualizes social protection as a set of safety net mechanisms for mitigating the range of risks and shocks that people face (natural, economic, health, political), through public interventions that include social assistance and social insurance. Countries that focus on risk management in their NSPP or NSPS include Benin, Cabo Verde and the Central African Republic.

The **life-cycle approach (LCA)** disaggregates needs for social protection by stages of life, recognizing that sources of vulnerability are different for children, working-age adults and older persons. It identifies appropriate social protection instruments for each group and each source of vulnerability –child benefits for children, pensions for older persons, and so on. Lesotho, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Zambia and Zanzibar all favour a life-cycle approach in their social protection strategies.

**Transformative social protection (TSP)** adds a fourth component (“transformation”) to the three pillars of social assistance (“protection”), social

insurance (“prevention”) and livelihoods support (“promotion”). Niger’s NSPP (Niger PNPS, 2011) explains that TSP aims “at transforming the systems of inequality that keep the poor in poverty ... through the strengthening of social status and the rights of the excluded and marginalised.” At least 12 African countries have incorporated TSP in their NSPP or NSPS.

The **social protection floor (SPF)** commits all member states of the International Labour Conference to implement four guarantees: income security for all children, people of working age and older persons, and access for all to essential health care. The SPF is a rights-based approach aiming at universal coverage of social protection, which governments are often hesitant to commit to except on a basis of “progressive realization” over time – e.g. 10 years in Ghana, 15 years in Rwanda. Côte d’Ivoire has also adopted the SPF.

These conceptual frameworks are complementary; they do not contradict each other. For instance, the social protection floor disaggregates the right to social protection by life-cycle stage. Several countries draw on two or even three frameworks in their social protection strategies. Kenya combines TSP (“anti-discrimination legislation”) with SPF (“a universal minimum package”). The Gambia and Nigeria combine the life-cycle approach, transformative social protection and the social protection floor.

## 2.3 Regional variations

Although Africa has experienced an enormous and rapid expansion of investment in social assistance programmes in the past two decades, progress is uneven across the continent and different sub-regions have followed different trajectories. As a generalization, social assistance is more advanced in East and Southern Africa, less advanced in West Africa and lagging behind in Central Africa. North Africa has followed a different path from sub-Saharan Africa. Variations reflect different



colonial histories and contemporary engagement with international development agencies, as well as express domestic social policy objectives and attitudes towards public investment in “welfare” versus “productive” sectors.

Most countries in Southern Africa administer categorical cash transfers to vulnerable demographic groups (child grants, disability grants, social pensions), led by South Africa which initiated social pensions in the 1920s, later followed by Namibia, Botswana and Mauritius. In the mid-2000s, Lesotho and Eswatini (formerly Swaziland) also introduced social pensions, to support older persons caring for children orphaned by AIDS. In 1998, South Africa launched the Child Support Grant, now the largest social assistance programme in Africa, as a post-apartheid response to racialized poverty. These schemes are mostly financed by domestic taxes, with little involvement of international agencies. Two Lusophone countries in Southern Africa (Angola and Mozambique) have passed a Social Protection Law.

In East Africa, social assistance evolved out of a long history of food insecurity and food crises, with cash transfers introduced relatively recently to replace emergency or programme food aid. Large-scale “productive safety net” programmes were introduced in the 2000s by the governments of Ethiopia, Kenya and Rwanda, as mechanisms to reduce food insecurity and promote productive inclusion. Initial design inputs and financing were provided by international development partners.

In several Francophone countries of West and Central Africa, the right to social protection is enshrined in the national constitution and is understood as a demonstration of social solidarity and social cohesion. But this right is rarely justiciable, as is also the case elsewhere in Africa. Relatively few social assistance programmes are operating at national scale in these regions, especially in Central Africa, where the recent wave of social protection has barely penetrated.

Social assistance in North Africa has been dominated by universal subsidies for food and fuel, with some redistribution to the poor through various forms of Islamic charity. Recently, universal subsidies have started to be phased out in these countries and replaced with targeted cash transfers, while some governments have formalized the collection and disbursement of religious contributions such as zakat. Sudan’s Ministry of Welfare and Social Security, for instance, administers a national Zakat Fund.

## **2.4 Legal frameworks**

A legal framework is a fundamental component of any well-developed social protection system. Social protection and social assistance throughout Africa are increasingly underpinned by national legislation, ratification of relevant international conventions, references to social protection in the Constitution, a social protection policy or strategy, laws that confer the right to social protection and social accountability mechanisms that empower citizens to claim that right.

### **2.4.1 African Constitutions**

Most African constitutions refer to social protection, social assistance, social security or social welfare. Several constitutions include a specific guarantee: “The State shall provide appropriate social security to persons who are unable to support themselves and their dependants” (Kenya, 2010). In some recent constitutions this guarantee takes the form of a right: “Everyone shall have the right to social security for his or her protection ... in all situations of lack or decrease in his or her means of subsistence or in his or her capacity to work” (Cabo Verde, 2010). “The state ... shall guarantee the right to social assistance in accordance with the law” (Tunisia, 2014). Most African constitutions specify “vulnerable groups” that need social protection or social assistance. Such groups typically include children, women, older persons and persons with disability.

Constitutions are important because they embody the society’s values. A Constitutional Court case in 2004 explained why the right to social assistance is

entrenched in South Africa's Constitution: "A society had to attempt to ensure that the basic necessities of life were accessible to all if it was to be a society in which human dignity, freedom and equality were foundational" (SAFLI, 2014: 33).

But constitutional provisions are not necessarily enforceable or justiciable. Sometimes economic, social and cultural rights are framed as objectives or guiding principles that are non-binding, unless and until appropriate legislation is enacted by parliament. Also, because the full implementation of rights such as social assistance could be very expensive for the state, these rights are often subject to the principle of "progressive realization," meaning that they will be provided only when the government believes they can be afforded. Ethiopia's Constitution (1994) stipulates that the state "shall aim to provide all Ethiopians access to ... social security... to the extent the country's resources permit."

#### 2.4.2 National legislation

Constitutional provisions regarding social assistance are increasingly given effect in legislation. South Africa's constitutional recognition in 1996 that "Everyone has the right to have access to social security, including, if they are unable to support themselves and their dependants, appropriate social assistance" was followed by the Social Assistance Act in 2004. Similarly, Kenya's constitutional guarantee of social protection in 2010 was followed by a Social Assistance Act in 2013.

A legal framework for social assistance allows abstract rights to become enforceable claims. A detailed social assistance law specifies, *inter alia*, eligibility criteria, registration procedures, benefits payable and appeal mechanisms. On the other hand, social assistance can be implemented without any legal underpinning. Pilot projects have often been introduced (many with external support) and run for many years, even scaled up to national level, in the absence of a legal framework. This is not ideal, because it gives no rights or legal protection to programme participants. Programmes backed by law are less easy to close down.

Where the right to social assistance is reflected in legislation, this provides a legal basis for extending these rights. In South Africa, for example, civil society challenges concerning the legal definition of a child pushed the Government into lifting the age of eligibility for the Child Support Grant from under 7 years to up to 18 years.

Lusophone countries in Africa tend to favour legislation for social protection: first a framework law then specific laws governing social assistance. Angola enacted its Social Security Framework Law in 2003 and a Basic Law on Social Protection in 2004. Cabo Verde's Social Security Law came in 2001 and its Basic Social Protection Law followed in 2013. Mozambique enacted a Law on Social Protection in 2007 and Regulations on Basic Social Security (covering social assistance schemes) in 2009.

Legislation is also an important indicator of national ownership because it symbolizes social solidarity, especially with universal schemes such as social pensions for all older persons or health insurance for all. Alternatively, universal coverage and inclusiveness can be achieved by enacting one law that combines contributory social insurance with non-contributory social assistance, as with Gabon's Social Protection Code of 2017.

In several countries the concept of social protection encompasses social services in addition to social insurance and social assistance. Likewise, some social protection laws refer not only to monetary benefits (e.g. cash transfers) for alleviating poverty, but also to other objectives such as social inclusion. Tunisia, for instance, enacted a Law on Social Protection Centres in 2011 for homeless people and children at risk, while Mauritius passed its Social Integration and Empowerment Act in 2016, which aims "to enhance social justice and national unity, social integration and empowerment of persons living in absolute poverty".

#### 2.4.3 International law and regional instruments

The recognition of social protection as a right derives from the Universal Declaration of Human

Rights (UDHR) in 1948, which established the right of everyone to social security and to an adequate standard of living. These rights have three components: social assistance (for food, clothing, housing, and other basic needs), social services (such as medical care) and social security (insurance in the event of unemployment, retirement, etc.). The United Nations gave substance to the UDHR in 1966 with the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which has been ratified by 50 African countries. Other relevant UN instruments that have been ratified by most African countries include the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the Convention of the Rights of the Child, and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.

Global standards on social protection derive from the ILO's Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention of 1952, which has been ratified by only seven African countries, but provides a framework that has been incorporated into most social protection systems in Africa. More recently, the ILO's Social Protection Floors Recommendation in 2012 established a minimum set of guarantees—income security and healthcare for all children, working-age adults and older persons—that have already been incorporated into several national social protection policies in Africa.

At the Africa level, the African Union's African Charter on Human and People's Rights of 1981, ratified by all 55 AU member states, specifies a number of rights that refer implicitly to social protection, including the rights to food, health and protection of the family. The AU Social Policy Framework for Africa of 2008 stressed the need for a "minimum package of essential social protection" for vulnerable groups—"children, informal workers, the unemployed, older persons and persons with disabilities"—mainly by extending social insurance schemes, social welfare services and non-contributory cash transfers. In 2015 the AU Executive Council asked the AU Commission to develop an Additional Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights,

on the Rights of Citizens to Social Protection and Social Security. Specific charters that refer explicitly to rights to social assistance in Africa have been developed for youth (2006), internally displaced persons (2009), older persons (2016), and persons with disabilities (2018).

Regional Economic Communities (RECs) within Africa are developing their own social protection instruments. In the East African Community (EAC) these include the EAC Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2012) the EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013) and the EAC Child Policy (2016). In the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), the Code on Social Security in the SADC (2008) and the Protocol on Employment and Labour (2014) both specify that member states should provide social assistance to anyone with insufficient means of subsistence. In North Africa, the Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region (2014) commits countries to expand social protection. In West and Central Africa, a Communiqué of the International Conference on Child Poverty and Social Protection (2015) argues for the development of national social protection policies, based on the Social Protection Floor.

#### 2.4.4 Social accountability mechanisms

Social accountability mechanisms empower citizens and civil society to hold governments to account, including to deliver social assistance, especially (but not only) where a right to social protection is enshrined in the constitution and enacted in legislation. Social accountability democratizes social protection, and for this reason these mechanisms are more prevalent in countries where governments are responsive to protests and civil society activism is tolerated rather than repressed.





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**Terraristikbörse**

Some institutions for social accountability are established by governments themselves, for example South Africa's Framework for Strengthening Citizen-Government Partnerships for Monitoring Frontline Service Delivery. In Ethiopia, the Expanding Social Accountability Programme uses tools such as community score cards and citizen report cards to monitor delivery and improve the quality of social assistance and other services, and to make government more responsive to locally articulated needs.

Some social assistance programmes have inbuilt accountability mechanisms such as a grievance procedure that allows beneficiaries to complain if they do not receive their payments in full and on time, and also allows non-beneficiaries to argue that they were unfairly excluded. This is aligned with the ILO's Social Security Convention of 1952, which provides that: "Every claimant shall have a right of appeal in case of refusal of the benefit or complaint as to its quality or quantity."

These programme-level rights are spreading in Africa. Ghana's Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme has Community LEAP Implementation Committees, which empower citizens to participate actively in programming decisions rather than being passive beneficiaries. In other cases, external actors design customized accountability mechanisms for programmes they support. Kenya's Hunger Safety Net Programme had a Programme Charter of Rights and Responsibilities, and community-level Beneficiary Rights Committees were established by the NGO HelpAge International.

## **2.5 Institutionalizing social assistance**

Legal frameworks create an entitlement to social assistance, but institutions play a decisive role in whether and how that right is realized. Efficient government structures, including a designated ministry or agency as well as transparent rules and accountability, ensure that social assistance goes to the right persons in full and on time, leaving the recipients better able to plan, invest and reap the returns of increased security.

African governments are increasingly taking the lead in expanding social assistance, not only by increasing the number of programmes, but also by scaling them up from small, temporary projects to permanent programmes that reach nationwide coverage. Accompanying this expansion, governments are establishing institutions and administrative structures to manage social assistance. Many governments have also developed national social protection strategies, passed relevant legislation, and are allocating more domestic funding to social assistance.

There is no one pathway to building stable permanent institutions for social assistance. Some countries first enact laws, followed by a national strategy implemented by an evolving state apparatus. Others have never developed a strategy but have a strong social protection system underpinned by national legislation. Yet others take over programmes initially supported by development partners and create institutions to embed them in national structures.

This report considers several dimensions of institutionalization of social assistance: coordination; delivery of social assistance at different levels of government; organizational capacity; and core administrative functions such as targeting and payment methods.

### **2.5.1 Institutional coordination**

Coordination of social protection policies and social assistance programmes, as well as—given the interdisciplinary nature of social protection—linkages with relevant sectors (e.g. health, education, agriculture) are vital to maximize efficiency and effectiveness. Institutional coordination involves two dimensions—policy supervision or oversight, and cross-sector administrative coordination at the programme level.

The establishment of a dedicated ministry or agency responsible for policy coherence and supervision of the social assistance portfolio is one



marker of institutionalization. The more power such a body has, the greater its authority and convening power vis-à-vis other departments and the more effectively the system will perform. African countries that have recently established a dedicated ministry for social protection include Egypt, Ghana, Kenya and Madagascar. This gives the sector more prominence and visibility within government, but often these ministries exert limited authority. In other cases, stronger ministries administer social assistance. In Lesotho, for instance, the old age grant is run by the Ministry of Finance. Some countries institute inter-ministerial architecture to facilitate coordination of social protection within the government (examples include Benin, Burkina Faso and Senegal).

An important insight from the review of institutional set-ups concerns governments' efforts to integrate the management of social assistance within their structures and capacities. Coordination of the social assistance portfolio involves cross-sector administration to harmonize different programmes and to introduce management tools and processes (e.g. a unified database or "single registry"). Establishing a ministry or agency brings a mandate, a budget, clearly defined roles and responsibilities and capacities to implement. In several countries (e.g. Mozambique, Seychelles, South Africa and Tanzania), social assistance programmes are implemented through a single semi-autonomous agency. In others they are managed by a public body under a ministry (e.g. in Kenya) or by a private management consultancy firm (e.g. in Uganda). Many countries are developing integrated information systems that drive coordination and harmonization of social assistance programmes. Technical assistance provided by development partners for this purpose is valuable but can hamper coordination efforts if it creates parallel structures with blurred lines of accountability.

### 2.5.2 Organizational structures and capacities

Different levels of government are involved in delivering social assistance programmes, from central to local, which requires multi-level coordination of

organizational structures. While most programmes are managed centrally, local government plays important roles in social assistance delivery (e.g. in targeting, registrations, payments and case management) due to its proximity to communities. In Ethiopia's PSNP, vertical coordination happens between the federal and national levels, while implementation occurs at local level, where task forces comprising a range of stakeholders (local government, civil society organizations (CSOs), social workers, health workers) oversee programme delivery. However, a policy decision to coordinate across levels is not always followed by the allocation of necessary resources and delegation of decision-making power. Slow or partial decentralization, unclear lines of authority and responsibility, limited information flows between the centre and localities, and inadequate financial and human resources can all hinder the effectiveness of social assistance delivery.

Policies and strategies provide the overall direction and objectives of social assistance, while organizational structures are the backbone to fulfil that mandate. But the effectiveness and quality of programme delivery hinge on the capacities of responsible organizations. Organizational capacity is determined by socioeconomic contexts, political economy, maturity of the public sector, staffing and budget levels, and infrastructure (e.g., banking and ICT architecture, mobile phone usage, and civil registration records).

Staff shortages and low capacity of staff, particularly at local levels, are common challenges. On the one hand, limited numbers of social workers can result in reliance on volunteers, which undermines the objective of institutionalizing social assistance within government structures. On the other hand, if government employees such as social workers are assigned to duties such as administering cash transfer payments, this could compromise their ability to perform their core functions, such as case management and child protection. Politically influenced staffing, slow recruitment processes, lack of incentives and high staff turnover all contribute

to major capacity constraints in social assistance systems.

Many governments do not have adequate basic material resources such as office space, computers and vehicles to run social assistance programmes efficiently. Administrative costs per beneficiary tend to decrease over time, but countries often find it hard to allocate funds up front to strengthen administrative capacity and rely on development partners to support these operational costs.

### 2.5.3 Core administrative functions

Administrative functions that are necessary to deliver social assistance include targeting, registration, and payment systems.

**Targeting:** Since social assistance aims to provide support to specific groups of people, eligible individuals and households need to be accurately identified. Poverty targeting is controversial because exclusion errors are almost inevitable, especially in communities with high poverty levels where it is difficult to draw a clear line between the poor and non-poor. Most countries apply mixed methods to determine eligibility for social assistance, drawing on poverty assessment (means tests or proxy means tests) as well as demographic categories (e.g. older persons or persons with disability) or geographical location (all poor persons in a specific district). Communities are often engaged in the process, either by identifying their poor members or by validating lists compiled using other targeting mechanisms.

**Registration:** Different mechanisms exist to register eligible participants for social assistance. On-demand registration is seen as most effective because it is most convenient, but it requires structures and processes to be available all the time, which is beyond the capacity of many countries. Census-based registration carries the risk of exclusion error as census data are only collected at lengthy intervals. Single registries are a noteworthy innovation. They centralize participants' data in a unified database that can be used by various programmes,

reducing duplication and administrative costs and strengthening horizontal coordination (across programmes and sectors) and vertical coordination (between administrative levels). Some countries use national ID systems to create a discrete identification system for social assistance programmes, often using biometric data (e.g. Ghana, Namibia, South Africa). All these approaches face issues of data management and privacy.

**Payment systems:** At least in the initial stages, social assistance payments are almost always delivered manually, usually by government workers. This can create problems, such as overloading staff and distracting them from their core duties, risks of corruption, and delayed or irregular payments if the government disbursement system is too bureaucratic or experiences cash-flow disruptions. For these reasons and to improve efficiency, many governments are switching to electronic systems, such as mobile banks, e-payments or prepaid cards. This function tends to be outsourced to the private sector (banks or mobile phone companies), which has its own advantages and risks. Required technology (e.g. ATMs, network coverage) might not be accessible to all programme participants, bank charges can reduce the value of transfers, and private firms could misuse personal data. Governments need effective in-house capacity to supervise payment providers, as in Uganda.

## 2.6 Financing social assistance

Another marker of the deepening institutionalization of social assistance within Africa is the steadily increasing commitment of domestic finance to these programmes, which now exceeds spending by development partners in many countries. However, funding remains a major challenge due to public finance deficits. Continued expansion of social assistance requires a strategy for creating adequate fiscal space. This section reviews the basic components of public finance (i.e. public revenue and public expenditure), then analyses recent patterns of spending on social assistance

in Africa, before exploring options for fiscal policy to raise additional revenue for social assistance programmes.

### 2.6.1 Public revenue and expenditure

Public revenues are derived from tax and non-tax sources. In Africa, the main components of tax revenue are, in order of importance: value added tax (VAT); taxes on specific goods and services; personal income tax; and corporate income taxes. The weight of each component varies across countries. For example, in 2015 the contribution of personal income tax to total tax revenue ranged from a negligible 0.3 percent in Tunisia to 33.4 percent in South Africa.

The tax-to-GDP ratio (tax revenues as a proportion of GDP) is a sensitive indicator of the contribution made by tax collection to public finances. Based on available data between 2010 and 2015, the average for the continent was 17.8 percent, which is half of that obtained by OECD countries. Some countries have very low tax ratios. In 2015 Nigeria's tax-to-GDP ratio was only 1.5 percent, contradicting an observed pattern that resource-rich countries generally raise more taxes.

Non-tax revenues contribute 11 percent to government revenues in Africa. There are different patterns related to diverse types of revenues, such as: grants; sales of goods and services; property income; rents royalties and interest and dividends. While in Senegal and Rwanda grants are a major component of non-tax revenues, in Mauritius and Morocco sales of goods and services are dominant.

Public expenditure represents the cost of financing government activities, including social assistance. In 2012, public expenditure was 28.5 percent of GDP for 34 African countries, up from 25.0 percent in 2000. Again, the variation across countries is high. In 2012, Guinea Bissau's public spending was below 2 percent of GDP, while Lesotho's was over 62 percent.

In terms of the overall balance between revenue and expenditure, African countries have higher

public expenditure than public revenue, indicating persistent deficits in public finances. In 2014, almost all 24 countries with available data presented a negative revenue-expenditure gap.

### 2.6.2 Social assistance spending

Defence, education and health are usually among the top five expenditures of African governments. Social assistance is not, and typically receives discretionary funds, after non-discretionary allocations such as debt servicing. There is wide variation among 36 observed countries, where social assistance spending in 2014/15 fell in the range of 0.02 percent (Chad) to 5.55 percent (South Africa) of GDP.

This report introduces a Social Assistance Expenditure per Poor Person Indicator to assess the significance of social assistance in governments' agendas, as well as the actual needs for social assistance in any given country. A poor person is defined as someone having income below the purchasing power parity (PPP) poverty line of US\$1.90 per day. There is wide variation across countries, which is not correlated to regions or to the presence of oil and mineral reserves. Three sets of countries are observed in 2010-2015 in terms of spending per year:

- 1) High spenders (US\$1,000 to US\$36,000), including Mauritius, Seychelles, South Africa and Tunisia;
- 2) Intermediate spenders (US\$14 to US\$146), including Benin, Comoros, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Lesotho, Rwanda and Senegal;
- 3) Low spenders, comprising 19 countries which spend less than US\$9 on each poor person per year.

Another crucial source for social assistance funding in many countries is development partners—multilateral and bilateral agencies. As political commitment to social assistance rises so does domestic financing, until it exceeds financing from development partners. In the 2013-2015 period,

domestic contributions to cash transfer programmes tripled in Zambia and doubled in Rwanda, Kenya and Ghana. Government social assistance budgets tend to prioritize older persons, followed by children, persons with disability and lastly adults and youth, who are often overlooked. On the other hand, public works programmes that target youth and adults provide higher individual cash transfers compared to cash transfers to other groups.

**2.6.3 Expanding fiscal space for social assistance**  
Despite growing investment by governments, social assistance programmes are not prioritized within public budgets in most African countries. Therefore, strategies for raising state capacity for funding social assistance should be considered, such as improving the efficiency of tax collection, expanding the tax base, or changing tax rates. Alternatively, new taxes can be introduced, but that option rarely receives much political support.

In general, African countries have low tax collection capacity, one reason being the large informal sector which leaves a very small taxpayer base. This has implications for state spending in all areas and for the dominant taxes used for financing social programmes. Low tax collection capacity supports a preference for taxing consumption goods (e.g. VAT) over income tax, because the former typically has lower administrative costs and disincentive effects. However, this preference places a heavy burden on poor families and exacerbates inequality, because consumption goods taxes are regressive (unlike income tax which is progressive). The fact that the poor contribute to public revenues through consumption goods taxes, even if they do not pay income tax, is a strong argument for increasing government spending on pro-poor social assistance. South Africa, Botswana and Zambia have reduced the difference in tax effort between the two types of taxes, which allows for a significant use of income taxes within public revenues and anchors social assistance in a progressive tax strategy.









Contrary to common perceptions, domestic funding for social assistance now, on average, exceeds funding from development partners in many African countries. Nonetheless, official development assistance (ODA) is still commonly used as a source of finance for social assistance. The risk is that dependence on external funding inhibits domestic resource mobilization and institutional development. Positive impacts of ODA have been recorded on launching and extending social assistance programmes, on technical aspects such as designing social protection policies, and on meeting the initial costs of building systems and institutions. However, international aid makes only modest contributions to the recurrent costs of social cash transfers, especially in the long term.

Reducing illicit financial flows and tax avoidance are key areas for improving tax collection capacity. These are particularly prevalent in lower middle-income countries, which tend to combine availability of economic resources with limited institutional capacity for surveillance and control. Between 2003 and 2012, it is estimated that total illicit financial outflows from Africa greatly exceeded ODA inflows.

Reallocating budgets from other sectors and reducing subsidies can also increase fiscal space for social assistance. Any budget reallocations must be pro-poor: cutting spending on other social sectors (health, education) to fund social transfers could result in no net welfare gains, because those sectors are equally important for human development. As for cutting subsidies, while in theory this should release substantial revenues to allocate to social assistance, in practice this strategy is politically risky and the “subsidy dividend” is rarely redistributed in full to the poorest and most vulnerable.

## 2.7 Summary

This report identifies three waves of formal social protection in Africa, noting however that informal community-based support mechanisms have functioned in Africa for centuries. The first wave of

European-style social security was introduced to Africa during the colonial period, but was dominated by social insurance for civil servants, with very little social assistance for the poor. The second wave of social protection has spread through much of Africa since about 2000, with a focus on formal social assistance, especially cash transfers, as a poverty reduction tool. These initiatives were driven by international development partners that provided technical and financial support to policy formulation, programme design and systems building. In the emerging “third wave”, African governments are increasingly taking responsibility for delivering social assistance to their poor and vulnerable citizens.

In national and regional policy statements, social assistance (or social welfare) is understood as one of the two main branches of social protection, alongside social insurance (or social security). The African Union defines social protection as “responses by the state and society to protect citizens from risks, vulnerabilities and deprivations”. At the national level, social assistance is usually interpreted as cash or food transfers to poor and vulnerable groups. More than half the countries in Africa now have a National Social Protection Strategy (NSPS) or Policy (NSPP), which draw inspiration from four complementary conceptual frameworks: social risk management; life-cycle approach; transformative social protection; and the social protection floor.

**Legal frameworks** entrench social assistance as a claim and open spaces for civil society activism to extend its scope. Many national constitutions refer to social protection as a right that the state is duty-bound to uphold, but this right is not always enforceable. Some countries have given effect to this right by passing laws, either as framework legislation or to regulate specific social assistance programmes. Often these laws derive from international law, starting with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) and the African Charter on Human and People’s Rights (1981). The African Union is currently developing an Additional Protocol on the Rights of Citizens to Social Protection and Social

Security. Complementing these top-down laws, social accountability mechanisms are bottom-up initiatives that empower citizens to ensure that governments deliver social assistance and other services effectively and fairly, thereby making participants active actors and “democratizing” social assistance programmes.

**Institutionalization** of social assistance is increasingly visible across Africa. Policies and strategies have been adopted that transcend political cycles. Small-scale fragmented pilot projects promoted by development partners have been embedded in government structures, have scaled up and reached nationwide coverage supported by domestic funding. More stable governance and organizational structures are giving broad-based support and legitimacy to the expansion of social assistance across the continent.

However, coordination and integration within the sector and across government remains a critical challenge. Capacities of responsible institutions and staff need to improve and development partners need to be more committed to long-term capacity strengthening. Monitoring and evaluation is a crucial gap in many countries, limiting the ability to learn lessons and improve design and implementation of social assistance across diverse contexts and over time.

**Funding** of social assistance programmes is still a major challenge for African countries, due to public finance deficits and because social assistance is rarely prioritized in public revenue allocations, which typically favour sectors such as defence, education and health. Nonetheless, from small beginnings domestic funding for social assistance now exceeds ODA from development partners in several countries. The largest share of social assistance expenditure goes to older persons, children and persons with disability. Countries need to create more fiscal space to finance expanding coverage and more generous payments on social assistance programmes. One option is to raise more tax revenues, but this must be done in a way that is perceived as fair, does not harm the poor, and is politically acceptable. Other options

include reducing tax avoidance, illicit financial flows, and general price subsidies.

Overall, there are many indications that social assistance is becoming domesticated in Africa. Not only are governments taking on steadily rising proportions of programme financing, they are publishing policies, passing laws and establishing institutions that strengthen the delivery capacity and rights basis of social assistance programmes. As these trends continue, conceptualizations of social assistance can be expected to evolve in ways that draw both from Africa's rich traditions of mutual solidarity and from the global development policy discourse.



Chapter 3

# DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS

### 3.1 Introduction

Despite being a relatively novel concept in the development discourse, social protection is rapidly becoming embedded in national policy frameworks throughout Africa. This chapter aims to present and analyse how social protection is understood in Africa, specifically how social assistance is defined and interpreted as one dimension or pillar of social protection policies and strategies. This chapter is therefore based mainly on a review of national and regional policy documents.

African communities have a rich history of mutual solidarity and reciprocity, dating back centuries. Some of these customary practices and institutions persist, providing essential but limited social assistance to poor and vulnerable people who are not yet reached by formal mechanisms. Formal social protection was originally brought to most African countries during the colonial period, initially in the form of social insurance to protect public servants (e.g. civil service pension schemes), although this coverage later became more broadly based. More recently, social assistance programmes that protect the poor are spreading throughout Africa, implemented by governments with technical and financial support from development partners that are supporting the development and implementation of social protection policies.

This chapter first reviews the pre-colonial origins of social assistance in Africa. Then we examine several contemporary definitions of social protection and social assistance in relevant AU, regional and national documents. Next, we review the conceptual frameworks for social assistance that are reflected in the rapidly growing number of national social

protection policies and strategies. Before concluding, the chapter briefly reviews differences in regional approaches to social protection across the continent.

### 3.2 Origins of social protection in Africa

Various forms of social assistance and social insurance have existed for thousands of years. State-provided social assistance in Europe dates back to the 17<sup>th</sup> century Poor Laws in England, which introduced “a national system of poor relief managed by central government” (Midgley, 1997: 77). During the late 19<sup>th</sup> century social insurance programmes emerged in Western Europe in response to processes of urbanization and industrialization and aimed to protect workers against income shocks such as occupational injury, unemployment and retirement. Social insurance for formally employed workers was complemented by social welfare programmes for poor and vulnerable citizens who were unable to work and had no means of support (e.g. orphans and people with disabilities). These forms of social assistance were provided by government agencies (formal providers) and private charities (semi-formal providers).

In precolonial Africa, mutual support was provided when needed through extended family networks, personalized charity, and some semi-formalized institutions. The original intention was probably to offer community-based solidarity against idiosyncratic shocks or misfortunes, at a time before national welfare programmes and international humanitarian relief systems were established. For example, in Southern Africa and West Africa, village grain banks and “chief’s fields” were established “to maintain food reserves against scarcity and to support those too old or young



to provide for themselves” (Iliffe, 1987: 58-59), functioning effectively as a tax on wealthier farmers to redistribute surplus grain to the poor. In East and Southern Africa, the spread of Christianity by missionaries included the introduction of charity and rudimentary welfare systems for poor people. In North and West Africa, Islamic alms-giving practices such as *zakat*<sup>2</sup> also provided social assistance for the poor on an ad hoc or discretionary basis, rather than regular and predictable claims-based transfers. Religious-based support to the poor such as *zakat* remains important today, and in some countries is now regulated by the state.

Informal or semi-formal consumption smoothing and risk-pooling mechanisms in African communities include rotating savings and credit associations (ROSCAs), labour work parties (for farming), oxen-pairing (for ploughing) and livestock rearing (where milk and offspring are shared between the owner and the herder). These mechanisms started within kinship groups such as clans and were based on social relationships that generated trust and solidarity: “if the sky falls upon me, my clan would rescue me” (Hebo, 2013: 19). However, with the exception of grain banks, these are mostly horizontal (poor-to-poor) resource sharing and reciprocity arrangements, rather than vertical (rich-to-poor) redistributive transfers.

The main limitation of indigenous social protection is its limited coverage and effectiveness, especially against covariate shocks that undermine the redistributive capacity of entire communities. The reciprocity principle—“I help you today, you help me tomorrow”—can provide some protection against idiosyncratic shocks that affect individuals (such as short periods of illness), but it cannot cover the needs of groups of people who are all severely affected by a major covariate shock (such as a drought).<sup>3</sup> In very poor countries with formal provision, informal mechanisms remain crucial sources of support, if

only by default. In the DRC, for example: “Informal transfers, such as money given by friends and family and support by churches, are the strongest source of support. ... Widespread poverty severely limits the extent to which people can rely on friends, family and the church, though, particularly in the case of successive shocks, so more formal programmes are needed” (Bailey, Perezniето and Jones, 2011: ix). According to Côte d’Ivoire’s National Social Protection Strategy, “mechanisms of solidarity and mutual support at the level of the extended family, communities and associations remain the only social protection framework for most of the population, but they are gradually weakening due to modernisation, migration and displacement, urbanisation, and the relaxation of solidarity within the extended family”.

Also, the perception of “traditional” African societies as egalitarian and inclusive ignores the reality that all communities have social hierarchies and power imbalances that reinforce privilege for some members and marginalization or social exclusion for the most vulnerable. Some forms of customary social assistance occur within patron-client relationships that are actually a form of disguised exploitation (Watts, 1983). For example, a wealthy farmer might offer to help a poor needy neighbour, who then has to work without pay on the farmer’s land. On the other hand, remittances – both from urban-based to rural family members and from expatriates working abroad to their families back home – are increasing in many African countries, and now exceed bilateral and multilateral aid to Africa by value (World Bank, 2017).

Very few lessons and practices from “customary” mechanisms have been incorporated into “modern” social protection systems. Only a few contemporary social protection policy statements acknowledge the role of informal mechanisms, probably because social protection is increasingly understood as a government mandate and responsibility towards its

<sup>2</sup> *Zakat* is one of the five pillars of Islam and requires Muslims to redistribute a percentage of their wealth to the poor every year, either privately or through Islamic institutions or designated government agencies.

<sup>3</sup> An idiosyncratic shock affects individuals (e.g. illness) while a covariate shock affects groups of people (e.g. a natural disaster).

citizens and residents. Exceptions include two West African countries—Chad and Mauritania—and three East African countries—Ethiopia, Kenya and Tanzania. Kenya's NSPP distinguishes between “two main types of such safety nets: membership of traditional solidarity networks (the family, kinship groups, and neighbourhoods); and membership of cooperative or social welfare associations (including self-help groups, rotating savings and credit associations, and cultural associations)” (Kenya, 2011: 11). Comoros also refers in its NSPP to “traditional solidarity mechanisms that provide assistance to members of groups or the community” (Comoros, 2014: 35).

In Tanzania's (draft) Social Protection Framework, social protection “describes traditional family and community support structures, and interventions by state and non-state actors that support individuals, households and communities to prevent, manage and overcome the risks threatening their present and future security and wellbeing” (Tanzania, 2008: 5). Hebo (2013: 14) notes that this conceptualization “recognises the dual natures of social protection (formal and informal); brings informal social protection to the fore, perhaps recognising its pervasiveness and significance in an African society; and clearly recognises community as a “support structure””.

### **3.3 Definitions of social protection and social assistance in Africa**

This section reviews alternative definitions and framings of social protection in regional and national policies, strategies and position papers, starting with the African Union.

#### **3.3.1 The African Union and Regional Economic Communities**

In Ouagadougou in 2004, AU Member States committed to strengthening social protection schemes and extending them to currently excluded workers and their families. This was followed by the Livingstone and Yaoundé Calls for Action in 2006, and regional meetings in 2008 on Investing in Social

Protection in Africa (the “Livingstone 2” process). The AU's approach to social protection is articulated most clearly in its Social Policy Framework for Africa of 2008, which reflects an operational definition that is instrumental, pragmatic, and highlights linkages to other social sectors:

The purpose of social protection, according to the United Nations, is to ensure minimum standards of well-being among people in dire situations to live a life with dignity, and to enhance human capabilities. Social protection includes responses by the state and society to protect citizens from risks, vulnerabilities and deprivations. It also includes strategies and programmes aimed at ensuring a minimum standard of livelihood for all people in a given country. This entails measures to secure education and health care, social welfare, livelihood, access to stable income, as well as employment. In effect, social protection measures are comprehensive, and are not limited to traditional measures of social security (AU, 2008: 19).

The benefits or objectives of social protection are identified later in the same document as “to build human capital, break the intergenerational poverty cycle and reduce the growing inequalities that constrain Africa's economic and social development” (AU, 2008: 16). The Social Policy Framework for Africa also proposes “a minimum package of essential social protection [that] should cover essential health care, and benefits for children, informal workers, the unemployed, older persons and persons with disabilities” (AU, 2008: 17).

Another important position statement by the AU is the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights Principles and Guidelines on the Implementation of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR, 2011), which identifies social security as a right and recognizes its potential to reduce poverty and social exclusion and to guarantee human

dignity for all persons. “Social security, through its redistributive character, plays an important role in poverty reduction and alleviation and preventing social exclusion and promoting social inclusion” (para. 80). Although “the right to social security is not explicitly protected in the African Charter” (para. 81), the ACHPR asserts that it can be derived from other rights that are explicit in the Charter, including the right to food and to protection of the family and “the aged and the disabled” (para. 81).

The ACHPR document extrapolates from the “derived” right to social security in the African Charter to propose that this right “imposes, amongst others, the following obligations on States Parties: ensure access to a social security scheme that provides a minimum essential level of benefits to all individuals and families that will enable them to acquire at least essential health care, basic shelter and housing, water and sanitation, foodstuffs, and the most basic forms of education consistent with human life, security and dignity” (para. 82). This package of provisions pre-dates but is consistent with the social protection floor.

Most of the eight Regional Economic Communities (RECs) of the AU are either silent on defining social protection or adopt AU positions and frameworks in their policy statements on social security and social protection. For example, “the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) has followed the AU’s lead in working towards the extension of social protection for all” (Pino and Confalonieri, 2014: 131). One REC that has produced its own documentation and definitions is SADC; its “Code on Social Security in the SADC” (2007) defines “social assistance” and “social protection” as follows:

Social assistance: This is a form of social security which provides assistance in cash or in kind to persons who lack the means to support themselves and their dependants. Social assistance is means-tested and is funded from government revenues. Normally, the beneficiaries are those who are not covered by any other form

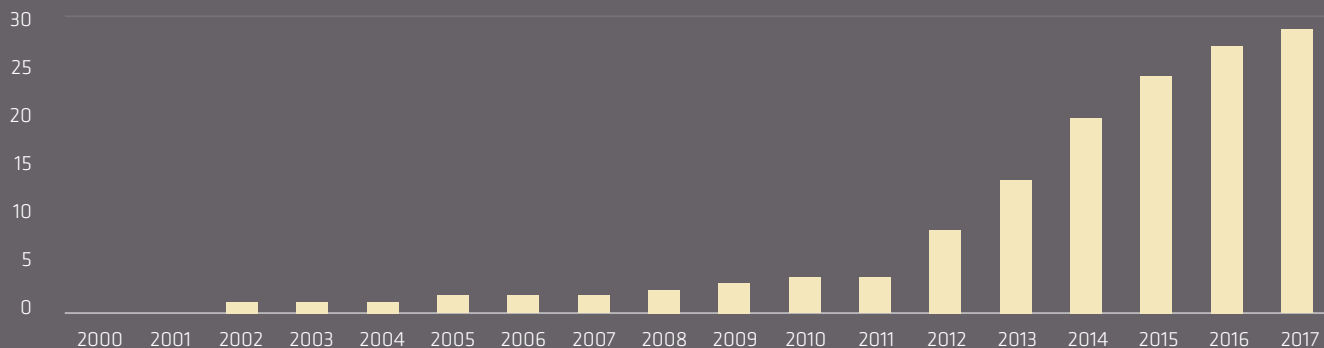
of social security. The objective of social assistance is to alleviate poverty through, amongst other things, the provision of minimum income support (SADC, 2008: Article 1.2).

Social security: This refers to public and private, or to mixed public and private measures, designed to protect individuals and families against income insecurity caused by contingencies such as unemployment, employment injury, maternity, sickness, invalidity, old age and death (SADC, 2008: Article 1.5).

Social protection: Social protection is broader than social security. It encompasses social security and social services, as well as developmental social welfare. Social protection thus refers to public and private, or to mixed public and private measures designed to protect individuals against life-cycle crises that curtail their capacity to meet their needs. ... [It] is not restricted to protection against income insecurity caused by particular contingencies. Its objective, therefore, is to enhance human welfare (SADC, 2008: Article 1.4).

Further position statements on social protection from North Africa, West and Central Africa, and East Africa are presented in Box 6.

**FIGURE 6.** Number of African countries with a National Social Protection Policy or Strategy, 2000–2017



Source: UNDP 2019.

**BOX 6.** Social protection position statements from East, North, West and Central Africa

**East Africa**

In 2010 the East African Community (EAC) Council of Ministers established a Sectoral Council on Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development, “to spearhead action in relation to matters affecting social welfare, including children’s rights” (EAC, 2016: 9). In 2011 the EAC aimed to adopt a Social Protection Policy by 2013 (EAC, 2011: 175). Instead, the EAC produced its Social Development Policy Framework in 2013, which endorsed both transformative social protection and the social protection floor and recognized that “social protection should be a state obligation, with provision for it in national legislation” (EAC, 2013: 47). Also, in 2012, the EAC aimed to develop “a regional policy on social protection and ... to establish a regional forum on social protection at the EAC level” (EAC, 2012: 11). In its “Child Policy” of 2016 the EAC defines social protection as: “A set of public policies, programmes and systems that help poor and vulnerable individuals and households to reduce their economic and social vulnerabilities, improve their ability to cope with risks and shocks and enhance their human rights and social status” (EAC, 2016: 7).

**North Africa**

In 2014 the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia produced the Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region, which committed Member States to “develop strategies that expand social protection, without exclusion or marginalisation to address the requirements of different population groups” (ESCOWA, 2018: 2).

**West and Central Africa**

Participants in an international conference on Child Poverty and Social Protection held in Nigeria in 2016 issued a communiqué affirming that “Child Poverty should be eradicated and Social Protection be provided to all children specifically in West and Central Africa”. It further recommended that “social protection policies be based on the Social Protection Floor framework” (ECOWAS, UNICEF and ILO, 2016: 1, 2).

### 3.3.2 National policies and strategies

More than half of African countries have either a National Social Protection Policy (NSPP) or a National Social Protection Strategy (NSPS), or both. Figure 6 shows the cumulative total of countries with a NSPP or NSPS by year from 2000 to 2017. It is interesting that not a single African country had a social protection policy until 2002, even though social protection programmes were recorded from as early as the 1920s. Only four countries had a NSPP or NSPS by 2010, after which there was a rapid acceleration to 29 countries by 2017, which coincides with an increased engagement of development partners in social protection. Most of these position statements present their country's preferred definition of social protection and several also offer a definition of social assistance.

### 3.3.3 Social protection

The dominant understanding of social protection in African NSPP and NSPS is that it is a government responsibility, delivered by public agencies.<sup>4</sup> Examples include the definitions by Liberia ("policies and programs, implemented as part of public action"), Côte d'Ivoire ("a public interest mission"), Niger ("a range of public investments and initiatives"), Burkina Faso and Senegal ("public interventions"). Typically, however, the state is identified as not being the only actor, as in the cases of Ghana ("a range of actions carried out by the state and other parties"), Burundi ("a set of public or private measures"), Malawi and Rwanda ("public and private initiatives") and Zanzibar<sup>5</sup> ("a set of actions by government and non-government actors").

These excerpts reveal that the scope of social protection extends to actions, initiatives, interventions, investments, measures, policies and programmes. Kenya's NSPP even adds legal measures to the list ("Policies and actions, including legislative measures").

As noted above, some social protection policies or strategies incorporate informal mechanisms in their definitions. These include Chad, Mauritania and Niger ("initiatives, both formal and informal"), Ethiopia ("formal and informal interventions"), and Kenya ("Informal community support and extended families provide a significant form of social assistance in Kenya").

Most definitions identify the main objectives of social protection as being to address, alleviate, manage, prevent or reduce a range of negative processes and adverse outcomes. In 25 NSPP or NSPS documents reviewed, the most common outcome mentioned by African governments is vulnerability (17/25), as in the case of Lesotho ("to prevent and reduce the economic and social vulnerabilities"), Côte d'Ivoire ("reducing the vulnerability of populations to the risks and impact of shocks") and São Tomé and Príncipe ("to prevent, to reduce and to eliminate socioeconomic vulnerabilities"). The second most common outcome is risk (14/25), for example in Burkina Faso, Burundi and Comoros ("to better manage risks"), Ethiopia ("to reduce social and economic risks") and Mali ("to protect citizens against social risks"). Social risks are defined by Côte d'Ivoire to include "abuse, violence, exploitation, discrimination and exclusion". Risk is closely followed by poverty (13/25), for instance in Malawi ("reducing ultra-poverty"), Niger ("directly address ... chronic poverty") and Nigeria ("prevent and reduce poverty"). Madagascar set a specific target for the poverty reduction objective ("Reducing by 15% the number of people living in extreme poverty"). Also mentioned several times is deprivation (7/25), as in Zimbabwe ("alleviate poverty and deprivation").

The safety net function is highlighted in the case of Senegal ("reduce the probability of devastating welfare losses plunging people into poverty"). A few strategies address shocks, hazards, smoothing income and consumption, raising living standards of the

<sup>4</sup> Annex A.1 lists definitions of social protection as stated in African national policies and strategies.

<sup>5</sup> Zanzibar is a semi-autonomous region of Tanzania. It developed its Zanzibar Social Protection Policy in 2013.



poor, “ensuring food security” (Burundi) and reducing malnutrition (Comoros, Niger). Often a composite set of related objectives is listed, for example in Chad (“directly address risk, vulnerability and chronic poverty”) and Liberia (“reducing food insecurity and deprivation, while increasing resilience ... to shocks”).

Ensuring access to social services is highlighted as a secondary objective in most national social protection strategies (18/24), including those of Burkina Faso (“Improve the access of poor people and vulnerable groups to basic social services”), Liberia (“reduce barriers to accessing essential social services”) and Mozambique (“support access to basic social services”). “Basic social services” are defined by Burundi as “health, water and sanitation, and education”. Reducing inequality is another secondary objective in some strategies (5/24), notably the DRC, Ethiopia, Zanzibar, Zimbabwe and Niger (“transforming the systems of inequality that keep the poor in poverty”).

Human rights are mentioned occasionally (“All Zambian citizens have the right to Social Protection”; “All Mozambican citizens are entitled to social protection”) and Zimbabwe’s NSPPF acknowledges that: “Access to social assistance is a basic human right enshrined in international human rights instruments”. Quite often, the right to social security is assured in the national constitution (“The Constitution declares that Kenyans are entitled to enjoy a full range of ESC [economic, social and cultural] rights including those related to social protection in its varied aspects. The Government is committed to the progressive realization and protection of these rights”). Gender is given specific attention in only a few cases, such as the DRC, Gambia and Uganda, usually in the context of women being a vulnerable group, as in Niger (“the most vulnerable populations (women, young people, people with disabilities)”), rather than in terms of gender equity. Dignity is highlighted in the social protection definitions of Côte d’Ivoire (“guaranteeing minimum levels of human dignity”) and Uganda (“undignified lives”).

Many definitions also specify the intended target groups of social protection interventions. Most common are poor people: “the poor” (Kenya), “the poorest” (Burkina Faso, Côte d’Ivoire, Liberia), “people suffering from critical levels of poverty and deprivation” (Zambia), “those sections of the population who for any reason are not able to provide for themselves” (Ghana), “extremely poor people” (Madagascar). Also named in several policies or strategies are vulnerable groups: “vulnerable groups of society” (Mauritius), “vulnerable and marginalised groups” (Malawi, Rwanda), “the excluded and marginalised” (Niger). “Vulnerability” is usually understood as demographic, while “marginalization” is understood as social or political. Countries that prioritize specific vulnerable groups include the Central African Republic (“the youngest, the oldest, the disabled and those with health problems”), Comoros (“children, young people, single women (widowed or divorced) with dependent children, people with disabilities or disabled by chronic illness”) and Madagascar (“children deprived of family and parental care; extremely poor elderly people; people with disabilities; people in precarious situations belonging to minority groups”).

Two definitions refer explicitly to social exclusion: “socially excluded segment of the society” (Lesotho); “poverty or social exclusion” (Gabon). A few country policies recognize that social protection is not only for poor households and vulnerable individuals, but for everyone. These include Ethiopia (“all people”), Comoros and Gambia (“the entire population”) and Nigeria (“individuals and households throughout the life cycle”).

### 3.3.4 Social assistance

Social assistance is seen as central to the concept of social protection by most African governments.<sup>6</sup> Typically, social assistance is defined as non-contributory cash or in-kind transfers to the poor, as in Zimbabwe’s National Social Protection Policy Framework (NSPPF): “Social assistance is a non-contributory form of social security which is financed

<sup>6</sup> Annex A.2 lists definitions of social assistance as stated in African national policies and strategies.

from government revenue and in some cases with support from non-state actors such as development partners, civil society organisations and the private sector.”

Similarly, Sierra Leone’s draft Policy Framework for Social Protection defines social assistance as “the non contributory, regular and predictable cash or in-kind transfers made to the vulnerable in society. ... the sick, disabled, elderly, homeless etc.” Madagascar’s definition is “social transfers or non contributory social safety nets that target the fringe of very poor and/or vulnerable populations at higher risk”. Burundi’s National Social Protection Policy identifies “non contributory social assistance programs for the poorest and most vulnerable, such as cash transfer programs, labour-intensive public works, and targeted subsidies to the ‘needy’ for access to health care” (Burundi, 2011).

Zambia’s NSPP defines social assistance as: “provision of basic necessities to persons in difficult circumstances ... These have taken the form of non-contributory transfers either in cash or in-kind, fee waivers, and subsidies.” Zambia, Uganda and other countries see social assistance as targeting mostly “those who lack the inherent capacity to work” (Zambia, 2014: 5) and mentioning “social assistance to vulnerable children, persons with disabilities and the destitute” (Uganda, 2015: 7).

In Ethiopia’s NSPP, social assistance is defined as “non-contributory transfers to poor people by the government and others. This would include cash or food transfers, remittances and gifts”. The inclusion of “remittances” is interesting as it signifies Ethiopia’s conceptualization of social assistance as incorporating private transfers, which many other countries exclude from their definition.

Some country policies or strategies see social assistance as a means of ensuring access to basic social services for poor people who might otherwise be excluded. These include Mozambique (“social assistance programmes such as cash transfers,

in-kind transfers, fee waivers to support access to basic and social services”) and Mauritius (“Social assistance programmes (also referred to as safety net programmes) are designed to help the poor, vulnerable individuals and households cope with temporary or chronic poverty by providing income support and access to basic services”). Liberia (2013) includes access to services and also mentions school feeding as a specific social assistance intervention (“Social assistance programs are non-contributory and should include predictable cash transfers as well as in-kind transfers to the poorest and most vulnerable households, individuals and groups; fee waivers that reduce barriers to accessing essential social services; and a national school feeding program”). Liberia’s NSPPS also notes that: “In some literature these are referred to as ‘safety nets’”.

Many NSPP or NSPS documents operationalize social protection as social assistance plus social insurance. Sometimes additional components are added, but social assistance is always one of the two basic pillars. For example, both Chad’s and Mauritania’s NSPS have four pillars, including social services and social equity measures. Ghana’s NSPP adds financial access to social services as well as “productive inclusion and social employment” to social assistance and social insurance. Gambia adds labour market policies, productive safety nets, social welfare services and legal and social equity measures to the two basic pillars. Kenya defines social protection “in its totality: social assistance; social security; and health insurance”. Liberia’s third pillar is social legislation.

South Africa has no social protection policy or strategy, but the social protection chapter of the National Development Plan describes the most comprehensive system in Africa, with three components: “social assistance” (dominated by unconditional cash transfers such as the Child Support Grant), “statutory social insurance” (led by the Unemployment Insurance Fund), and “voluntary social insurance” (notably private medical schemes) (South Africa, 2011: 329).

Angola has a Ministry of Social Assistance and Reintegration (but no social protection policy or strategy). “The Social Protection Act of 2004 sets out a three-pronged approach to social protection, including a ‘basic’ non-contributory component for minimum subsistence and dignity targeted at the most vulnerable population segments” (EU, 2013: 2).

### 3.4 Conceptual approaches to social protection in Africa

An influential early framework for social protection was the **social risk management** approach (World Bank, 2001), which emphasized the safety net function and protection against shocks. Benin’s Ministry of Social Affairs’ Strategic Plan focuses on two specific risk management objectives: to reduce or prevent risks, and to provide protection against risks when they occur. Cabo Verde’s Strategy for the Development of Social Protection aimed “to help individuals, families and groups to improve their risk management”. The Central African Republic’s National Social Protection Policy aims to develop “mechanisms for covering major risks and managing shocks” (Cabo Verde, 2005).

However, social protection policies and strategies in Africa tend to favour one of three related conceptual approaches that emerged in international literature during the 2000s: the life-cycle approach, transformative social protection, and the social protection floor. As will be seen, these frameworks overlap and complement each other. For instance, all three approaches aim to manage risk, the social protection floor follows a life-cycle approach, while transformative social protection and the social protection floor are both rights-based.

**The life-cycle or life-course approach** is the simplest framework for social protection and derives from European approaches to social welfare, which aim to provide income protection against contingencies at different point in the life cycle (Bonilla Garcia and Gruat, 2003). “This life-course approach recognises that all citizens are exposed to different

vulnerabilities through the course of their lives, and that social protection has to be responsive to these differing vulnerabilities” (Lesotho, 2014: vi). Disaggregating the needs for social assistance at different stages of life results in more appropriate programming for each vulnerable group: child grants for children, pensions for older persons, and so on. Countries that cite the life-cycle approach include Lesotho, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Tanzania and Zanzibar.

Zanzibar’s Social Protection Policy identifies six stages of life—pre-school-age children, school-age children, adolescents, working-age adults, pregnant and lactating mothers, and older persons—with disability as a separate seventh category, and gendered vulnerabilities recognised as significant throughout the life-course. Mauritania’s NSPS “promises fairness and equality in terms of gender, taking the specific vulnerabilities of women into account”.

**Transformative social protection** is a rights-based approach that focuses on social justice and addressing social exclusion, not only income poverty and livelihood shocks (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004). At least 12 national policies or strategies in Africa favour the transformative approach. One example is Zambia’s National Social Protection Policy, which maps the four dimensions of the “transformative paradigm” onto four programme areas: “protection” is social assistance mechanisms, “prevention” is social security or social insurance, “promotion” is livelihoods support, and “transformation” is empowerment. Niger elaborates the “transformative” component of its National Social Protection Policy as follows: “Transformative measures aimed at transforming the systems of inequality that keep the poor in poverty and which concern the legal field, land tenure, the promotion of rights, etc. They address imbalances of power that create or maintain vulnerability through the strengthening of social status and the rights of the excluded and marginalised.”

Ethiopia's NSPP locates its shift from a “social welfare” approach to a “transformative” approach in the constitutional imperative to introduce social and economic rights to its social protection policy:

Ethiopia's social protection framework is part and parcel of an integrated approach to the progressive realization of social and economic rights noted in article 41 of the constitution. This policy introduces a shift from the social welfare approach of the developmental social welfare policy to a complete framework leading to coordinated actions to *protect* citizens from economic and social deprivation through emergency interventions and targeted cash transfers, *preventive* actions designed to avert deprivation or to mitigate the impact of adverse shocks including health and unemployment insurance, *promotive* actions that aim to enhance assets and human capital and income earning capacity, and *transformative* actions including legal and judicial reforms, budget analysis and policy evaluations to help the nation better manage social protection (Ethiopia, 2012: 1).

Several recent policies and strategies aim to implement a national **social protection floor**, which is defined as having four components: access to essential health care for all, and basic income security for children, for “persons in active age who are unable to earn sufficient income” (ILO, 2012) and for older persons. The disaggregation of “basic income security” by age cohort reveals that the social protection floor makes explicit reference to the life cycle approach.

Closing coverage gaps is the first objective of the “floor” approach, which is challenging for low-income countries with fiscal and capacity constraints. Ghana's NSPP, therefore, “aspires to universal social protection for Ghanaians throughout the life-cycle” but envisages this as a 15-year “journey” of progressive realization.

Côte d'Ivoire and Rwanda have also adopted the social protection floor. Rwanda's NSPS of 2011 sees this as consistent with the AU's Social Policy Framework for Africa and the 2010 Mwanza Declaration on Improvement of Social Protection Benefits for All East Africans, which “calls for countries to develop national social protection policies that stipulate minimum benefits and the Social Protection Floor as a guaranteed government programme” (Rwanda, 2011: 25). Like Ghana, Rwanda also sets out a phased approach towards achieving full coverage: “the Rwandan social protection floor will aim to progressively move towards establishing a system of cash transfers comprising four key instruments over the next ten years” (Rwanda, 2011: 61).

Finally, some countries refer to more than one conceptual framework in their social protection position statements. Kenya and Liberia combine transformative social protection and the social protection floor. Gambia and Nigeria add the life-cycle approach, thereby drawing on all three conceptual approaches.

In its NSPP of 2011, the Government of Kenya committed to pursuing “four approaches in delivering social protection”: provision (social assistance), prevention (social security and health insurance), promotion (enhancing livelihoods and productivity), and transformation (“laws and regulations ... anti-discrimination legislation...”). Complementing this “transformative” approach was a longer-term plan: “In the meantime, the Government will also be planning longer-term actions in line with the UN/ ILO Social Protection Floor (SPF) Initiative, which guarantees a universal minimum package” (Kenya, 2011: 23). One policy objective of Liberia's National Social Protection Policy and Strategy is to: “Provide Social Assistance to support the poorest and most vulnerable groups including children, the disabled and the elderly in attaining an improved standard of living consistent with a minimum social protection floor” (Liberia, 2013: 13).

Nigeria's NSPP of 2016 "considers social protection as both a right and an empowerment instrument". This motivates the choice of a rights-based approach, and a focus on social as well as economic aspects. "Government shall ensure that no citizen falls below the minimum level of social and economic wellbeing, security and dignity as enshrined in the Social Protection Floor. ... Government shall implement a transformative social protection framework, which takes into consideration both economic and social forms of vulnerabilities". However, Nigeria's NSPP also "adopts a lifecycle approach ... Social protection interventions are age-appropriate" (Nigeria, 2016: 22).

Of course, the fact that any particular approach is cited in a social protection policy or strategy does not necessarily mean that it is implemented. As with the right to social protection that is assured in more than 20 African constitutions, statements on paper need to be underpinned by legal and institutional frameworks (as discussed later in this report) that give effect to these promises in reality.

### **3.5 Understandings of social protection across Africa**

As a generalization, social protection can be understood as an instrument of either economic policy, social policy, or both. Throughout Africa, social objectives are achieved by demographic targeting of groups considered vulnerable because of their limited ability to work and earn income. In post-apartheid South Africa, for example, social grants to poor children, persons with disability and older persons have expanded to address the legacy of structural poverty and inequality. Lesotho and Eswatini introduced social pensions partly as a response to HIV and AIDS, to support older persons caring for AIDS orphans in missing generation households.

In many Anglophone countries of East and Southern Africa, social protection is promoted as a toolbox for reducing poverty and stimulating pro-poor economic growth, through local economic multipliers and household investments in human capital and

livelihood activities, especially when complemented by employment creation through public works (e.g. in Ethiopia and South Africa), access to microfinance, or asset transfers (e.g. on "graduation" programmes). The "productive safety net" model (notably in Ethiopia, Rwanda and Tanzania) aims to promote productive inclusion through building household assets and community resilience (e.g. through "shock-responsive" social protection).

Many Francophone countries of West and Central Africa—including Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, the Central African Republic and Mali—see social protection as a form of national solidarity, an obligation of all citizens to support those who need support from society and the state. For Burundi, social protection is a fundamental human right for all, and a mechanism for social cohesion and social inclusion (Burundi, 2011). However, the coverage of social protection programmes and benefit levels is generally low and comprehensive social protection systems are still emerging slowly, despite the fact that the right to social protection or social security is enshrined in several national constitutions, including Benin, Burkina Faso, Mali and Niger (Pino and Confalonieri, 2014: 133). Lusophone countries also follow this solidarity approach; for instance, Angola aimed to finance social protection through a National Solidarity and Assistance Fund, Mozambique has a Ministry of Social Action, and both countries have passed a Social Protection Law.

In North Africa, solidarity took the form of universal programmes such as consumer price subsidies, especially subsidies for fuel and food (such as *baladi* bread in Egypt), and by religious-based charity, notably *zakat*. But general price subsidies are expensive and regressive, so are being phased out and replaced in most countries with poverty-targeted social assistance programmes (Jawad, 2014; Devereux, 2015). *Zakat* is a major source of social assistance in Islamic countries. It can be distributed either informally (from richer to poorer individuals), semi-formally (through mosques) or formally (by the government—in Sudan, the Zakat Fund in the



Ministry of Welfare and Social Security administers contributions collected by 19,000 Zakat Community Committees). But *zakat* transfers are occasional and discretionary, rather than predictable rights-based social protection. Of the seven North African countries only one—Mauritania—has a national social protection strategy.

### 3.6 Conclusions

Contemporary forms of social protection in Africa are expanding, alongside traditional informal support mechanisms that persist but are too limited to alleviate poverty or to provide comprehensive protection against all livelihood risks. Only a minority of Africans have access to private or social insurance, so there is a great need for social assistance, which is spreading rapidly though under-coverage remains high.

Social protection is conceptualized broadly by the AU and Regional Economic Communities, but in practice tends to refer to social insurance and social assistance, sometimes complemented by pro-poor access to social services, social equity for social inclusion, and/or labour market policies for productive inclusion. Social assistance is understood in most countries as non-contributory transfers targeted to poor and vulnerable people, but often includes fee waivers, school feeding and other mechanisms. There is a consensus in national policies and strategies that social protection is a government responsibility—though the important role of informal mechanisms is often recognized – and that its primary function is to protect citizens against vulnerability, risk and poverty. However, very few countries operationalize a rights-based approach to social protection.

National social protection policies and strategies are informed by different but related conceptual frameworks—social risk management, the life-cycle approach, transformative social protection, or the social protection floor. Several countries incorporate elements of all these frameworks in their policy or strategy, while applying the principle of “progressive realization”:<sup>7</sup> in resource constrained contexts, achieving universal coverage and a rights-based entitlement to social assistance will take time.

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<sup>7</sup> In relation to the right to social protection or social assistance, the principle of “progressive realization” means that governments “have an obligation to take appropriate measures to the maximum of their available resources towards the full realization of the right” (Social Protection and Human Rights, 2015).



Chapter 4

# LEGAL FRAMEWORKS INFORMING SOCIAL ASSISTANCE



### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the legal frameworks that underpin social assistance in Africa, starting at the national level with constitutions, where social protection features prominently. Laws also guide social protection in many countries, although courts have rarely been used to enforce the right to social assistance. Beyond the national level, the AU and the RECs have passed protocols, charters and other “soft law” instruments that refer to social protection. African governments have also ratified global social protection instruments, mostly originating from the United Nations, though these are not all legally binding. Finally, various mechanisms for citizens to claim social protection are considered, including social accountability and complaints procedures.

### 4.2 Social assistance legal frameworks in Africa

In many countries the legal protection afforded to social assistance programmes is evolving. Historically, at least from the colonial period, emphasis was placed on developing and maintaining legal frameworks for contributory social security schemes that would serve the interests of those who are formally employed. More recently, non-contributory social assistance programmes that mainly aim to reach the vulnerable and poor individuals and households have become increasingly prominent in national social protection systems. Often these programmes are guided by policies, strategies and laws, though a large number are still delivered on a discretionary basis.

#### 4.2.1 National legal frameworks

A legal framework gives citizens and residents clarity with respect to: specific benefits that may be available to them; criteria they have to meet to qualify for such benefits; procedures that need to be followed to access these benefits; and complaints and appeal mechanisms available to them, should they be dissatisfied by a decision of the institutions that administer social assistance.

##### *National Constitutions*

Social security, social protection, social welfare and/or social assistance are mentioned in at least 35 African constitutions. Social security is the most common term (23), with fewer mentions of social protection (8), social welfare (5) and social assistance (3) (Table 1). In most cases the phrase social security can be read as interchangeable with social protection, and incorporates social welfare and social assistance, which are also used as synonyms for each other. Typically, social protection and social security are used as broader concepts, with social assistance being one branch. This report does not focus on social insurance mechanisms.

In at least 19 countries a right to social security, protection, welfare or assistance is specified in the constitution. Examples include South Africa (1996) (“Everyone has the right to have access to social security, including, if they are unable to support themselves and their dependents, appropriate social assistance”), Kenya (2010) (“The State shall provide appropriate social security to persons who are unable to support themselves and their dependents”), Tunisia (2014) (“The state ... shall guarantee the right to social assistance in accordance with the law”) and Comoros (2009) (the revised Constitution contains a

general guarantee of the “right to social security and social protection”).

African constitutions often emphasize that vulnerable groups are meant to benefit from social protection measures. The Constitution of Burkina Faso (1991) mentions protection of maternity and of the child, and assistance to older or disabled persons. According to the Angolan Constitution (2010), the state shall promote and guarantee “the right to childcare and maternity care, care in illness, disability, old age and in situations in which they are unable to work” (Article 77). Figure 7 shows that women or families, older persons, children or youth and persons with disabilities are prioritized or targeted for social protection coverage in the majority of African constitutions. The same groups are prioritized in national social protection policies and strategies (see Chapter 3). Other vulnerable categories provided for in specific country contexts include liberation struggle veterans, minorities or the unemployed.

Often, constitutions give a mandate to the legislature to adopt appropriate legislation to regulate social protection and social assistance, and to governments to implement social protection policies and programmes. Constitutions of Francophone countries in particular make this clear. For example, the Constitution of Mali (1992) provides that the law shall determine the fundamental principles of social security. Modern constitutions of certain Anglophone countries do the same: the constitutions of both Kenya and South Africa impose an obligation on the state to take legislative and other measures to achieve the progressive realization of the right to social security or to social assistance. Several other African constitutions, including those of Burundi and Malawi, also foresee the progressive adoption and implementation of social assistance within the available resources of the country concerned. This implies that while governments are expected to roll out social assistance coverage and protection in accordance with the constitutional right, the need for some flexibility to achieve this is acknowledged.

### *National laws*

Countries in Africa are increasingly enacting national laws in line with the constitutional provisions covering social assistance. Examples include Kenya’s Social Assistance Act of 2013 which followed the constitutional provision enacted in 2010, and South Africa’s Social Assistance Act of 2004 which followed the constitutional recognition of social assistance in 1996.

However, this process is not uniform. In Lusophone countries an overarching or foundational legal framework is put in place first, which indicates how the components of social protection, particularly social insurance and social assistance, fit together. Subsequently, dedicated regulatory instruments are adopted which contain specific provisions in relation to the different components. In the case of Mozambique, the Law on Social Protection (2012) contains the overall provisions for the different components of the social protection whereas the Regulations on Basic Social Security (2016) provide specific legal instruments to regulate social assistance. The same process is observed in Angola and Cabo Verde, where the overall provisions for different components are contained in the Framework Act for Social Protection (2004) and the Social Security Law (2001), respectively, while the specific regulatory instruments are respectively provided in the Basic Law on Social Protection (2004) and the Basic Social Protection Law (2013).

Some African laws emphasize the provision of in-kind benefits and social services to vulnerable groups. In Tunisia and Algeria, the Law on Social Protection Centres (2011) and the Old Age Protection Law, (2010) provide a legal basis for the provision of care and other social services to homeless people and children at risk and to older persons, respectively. Gabon’s Social Protection Code (2017) provides a legal basis to achieve universal health care for all. Morocco, Benin, Djibouti and Rwanda have similar laws. In Mauritius, the Social Integration and Empowerment Act (2016) provides a legal basis “to enhance social justice and national unity, social integration and empowerment

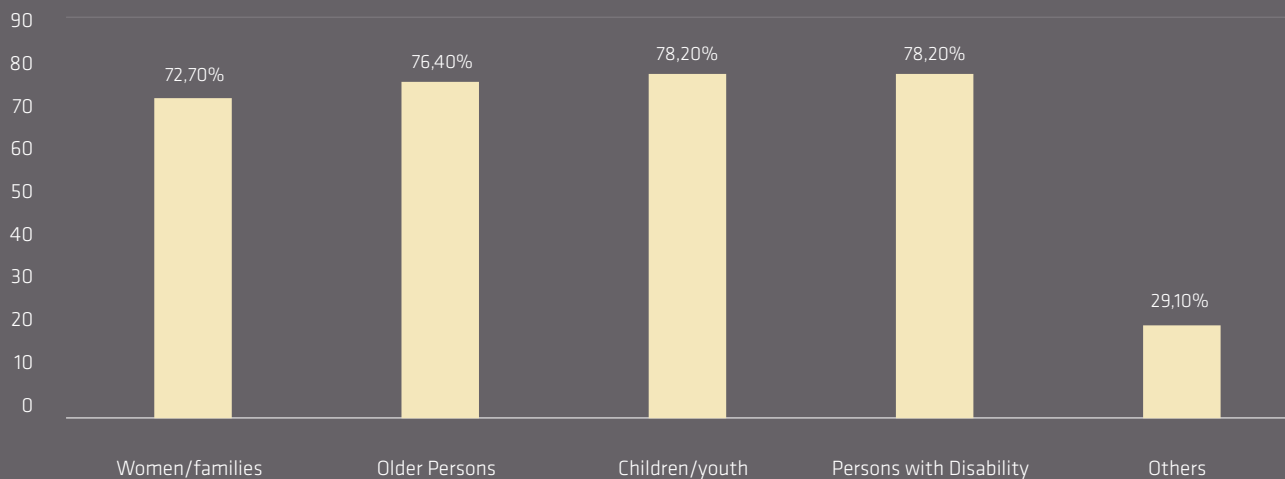


**TABLE 1.** African constitutions that mention social protection/ security/ welfare/ assistance

“Social security”		“Social protection”	“Social welfare”	“Social assistance”
<b>Right specified (10)</b>	<b>Mentioned (13)</b>	<b>Right specified (5)</b>	<b>Right specified (3)</b>	<b>Right specified (3)</b>
Burkina Faso (1991)	Algeria (1963)	Comoros (2001)	Eritrea (1997)	Ghana (1992)
Djibouti (1992)	Angola (2010)	DRC (2005)	Tanzania (1977)	South Africa (1996)
Egypt (2014)	Benin (1990)	Guinea (1990)	Zimbabwe (2013)	Tunisia (2014)
Gabon (1991)	Burundi (2005)	Mali (1992)		
Guinea Bissau (1984)	Congo (2015)	Togo (1992)		
Kenya (2010)	Ethiopia (1994)			
Seychelles (1993)	Libya (2011)	Mentioned (3)	Mentioned (2)	Mentioned (0)
Somalia (2012)	Mali (1992)	Angola (2010)	Madagascar (2010)	
South Africa (1996)	Mauritania (1991)	Morocco (2011)	Sudan (2005)	
Zimbabwe (2013)	Morocco (2011)	Niger (2010)		
	Niger (2010)			
	Senegal (2001)			
	Tunisia (2014)			
<b>23</b>		<b>8</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>3</b>

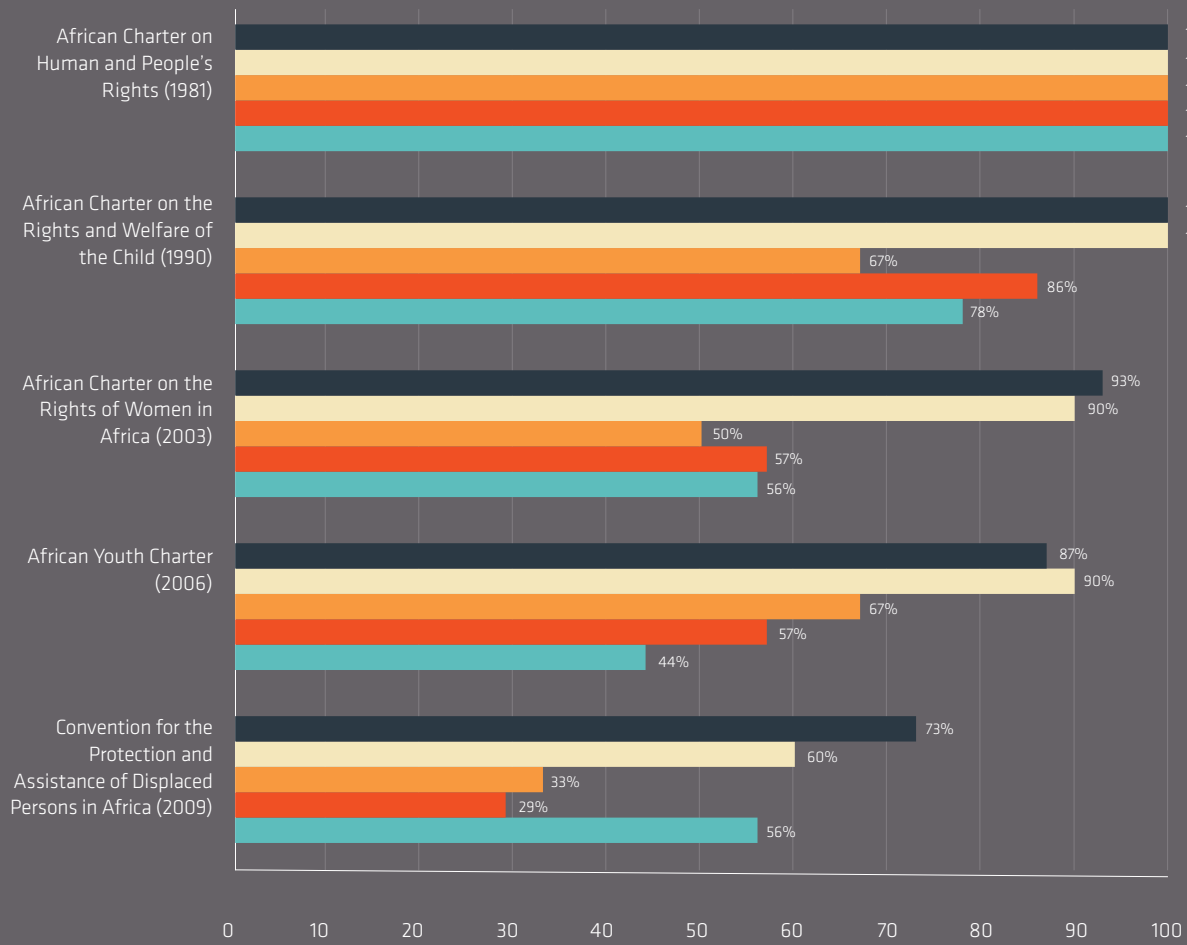
Source: ILO Forthcoming.

**FIGURE 7.** Prioritized groups for social protection in African constitutions

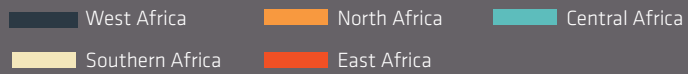


Source: UNDP 2019.

**FIGURE 8.** Ratification of relevant AU instruments by African countries



Source: Primary data compiled for the publication.



of persons living in absolute poverty”, and Angola’s Basic Law on Social Protection (2004) provides a framework for “well-being and minimum levels of livelihood and dignity”.

Some national laws define vulnerable groups entitled to protection, rather than a list of social risks or contingencies that qualify for social assistance coverage. These groups are sometimes formulated in broad terms, as in the case of Cabo Verde’s Basic Social Protection Act (2013) (“citizens in economic distress”), Mauritius’ Social Integration and Empowerment Act (2016) (“person living in absolute poverty”), Zimbabwe’s Social Welfare Assistance Act (2001) (“destitute/indigent persons”).

In other cases groups in specific periods of the life cycle are mentioned, as in the case of Zimbabwe’s Older Persons Act (2012) (“vulnerable older persons”), Nigeria’s Social Welfare Commission Act (2002) (“vulnerable groups”) and Namibia’s National Pensions Act (1992) (“aged, blind and disabled persons”).

#### 4.2.2 Regional legal frameworks

Within Africa, regional standards relevant to social assistance appear in Regional Economic Communities (RECs) instruments. As with instruments at continental (AU) level (discussed in the following section), some are legally binding once adopted while others can be considered as “soft law” as they are not legally binding but provide important guidance to African countries.

East African Community (EAC): In the Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999), Partner States committed to cooperate in the field of social welfare with respect to, among others, the development and adoption of a common approach towards disadvantaged and marginalized groups, including children, youth, the elderly and persons with disabilities. Further, according to the EAC Common Market Protocol (2009), Partner States undertake to coordinate and harmonize their social policies to promote and protect decent work and improve the

living conditions of citizens of the Partner States for the development of the EAC Common Market. In particular, they undertake to implement programmes to expand and improve social protection. Other specific social assistance-related provisions are contained in the EAC’s Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2012). This effectively portrays social protection as social assistance, and proposes several means to reduce vulnerability, including social safety nets, social security instruments and human development measures.

Furthermore, the EAC Child Policy (2016) suggests as strategies the development and implementation of minimum regional standards, improved access to, use and management of social protection services. The EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013) notes the emerging consensus that social protection is crucial for social development, that a minimum package of essential social protection should be available, and that social security extension should occur gradually. Cash transfers for vulnerable groups are specifically highlighted.

In West Africa and Central Africa, a Communiqué of the International Conference on Child Poverty and Social Protection (2015) suggests the development and implementation of policies providing social protection for all in West and Central Africa, based on the social protection floor framework. Also, for some countries in East Africa and all in North Africa, the Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region (ESCOWA, 2014) is relevant. This instrument contains an undertaking to develop strategies that expand social protection, without exclusion or marginalization, to address the requirements of different population groups and promotes participatory mechanisms to strengthen the role of civil society in this regard.

In the Southern African Development Community (SADC), the Protocol on Employment and Labour (2014) enjoins each State Party to aim at developing an integrated and comprehensive social protection

system which ensures meaningful coverage of all through social protection programmes, including social assistance. The Protocol specifically provides that: persons who have been unable to either enter or re-enter the labour market and have no means of subsistence shall be entitled to receive social assistance; every worker who has reached retirement age but is not entitled to a pension or does not have other means of subsistence shall be eligible to receive adequate social assistance to cater specifically for basic needs including medical care; social assistance support should also be available to workers who have become unemployed and who are not covered by compulsory social insurance; and appropriate and adequate social security protection should be extended to informal and rural workers, among others, through universal schemes and social assistance measures.

Finally, the Code on Social Security in SADC (2008) provides that everyone in SADC who has insufficient means of subsistence to support themselves and their dependents should be entitled to social assistance, in accordance with the level of socioeconomic development of the particular Member State. Apart from categories such as vulnerable children, young persons, older persons and persons with disabilities, the Code also extends the right to social assistance to those in need who are unemployed or under-employed, as well as migrants and refugees.

#### 4.2.3 African Union legal frameworks

In 2015 the AU Executive Council requested the AU Commission, in collaboration with the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights, to develop an Additional Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Citizens to Social Protection and Social Security (Strijdom, 2016). Once adopted, the Protocol will become an overarching binding instrument relating to social protection in Africa.

In addition, the AU elaborated several instruments that could be of relevance for the national legal

basis for social assistance. Although not legally binding, they have been ratified by many African countries and are therefore important, at least as a commitment towards the realization of the right to social assistance by ratifying countries (see Figure 8).

The African Charter on Human and People's Rights (ACHPR) of 1981 includes an implicit right to social assistance in Article 18: "The State shall have the duty to assist the family". This duty extends to vulnerable groups such as older persons and persons with disability, who are said to "have a right to special measures of protection in keeping with their physical or moral needs" (AU, 1981, Article 18). All African Union Member States have ratified this instrument, as shown in Figure 8. Furthermore, as noted by the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights in its Principles and Guidelines on the Implementation of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, (ACHPR, 2011) the Charter includes the rights to life, dignity, liberty, work, health, food, protection of the family and the right to the protection of the aged and the disabled. Between 1990 and 2003, the African Union developed three more charters that are relevant for legal frameworks of social assistance:

- the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990), which has been ratified by all countries in West and Southern Africa;
- the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women (2003), which has been ratified by most countries in West and Southern Africa and about half of countries in North, East and Central Africa; and
- the African Youth Charter (2006), which recognizes the right of every young person to benefit from social security and has also been ratified mostly in West and Southern Africa.

The Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (AU, 2009), with the lowest rate of ratification to date, calls for assistance to displaced persons to meet their basic needs.

Finally, two recent African Union instruments concerning older persons and persons with disability reaffirm the right to social protection and social assistance in relation to these two groups (Box 7). Lesotho is the first African country to have ratified the Protocol on the Rights of Older Persons.

The AU Social Policy Framework for Africa (2008) argues for and provides guidance on the extension of social protection through measures such as publicly financed, non-contributory cash transfers. The Framework notes that the minimum package of essential social protection should cover essential health care and benefits for children, informal

workers, the unemployed, older persons and persons with disabilities. The idea of a minimum package of support to be extended to vulnerable persons is also reflected in other AU documents, notably the Social Protection Plan for the Informal Economy and Rural Workers (AU, 2011).

#### 4.2.4 Global legal frameworks

International instruments and standards, as set forth by the UN, and the ILO, serve as a benchmark that countries can use to establish, develop and improve their legal framework for social assistance. They are also an expression of the fact that access to social assistance is a human right and, as is the case with

### **BOX 7.** AU Protocol provisions concerning social protection or social assistance for vulnerable groups

#### **1. Older persons**

*The AU Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Older Persons in Africa (2016) stipulates that States Parties shall:*

Ensure that, in the event of incapacity, older persons shall be provided with legal and social assistance in order to make decisions that are in their best interests and well-being (Article 5(2));

Ensure that universal social protection mechanisms exist to provide income security for those older persons who did not have the opportunity to contribute to any social security provisions (Article 7(2)).

#### **2. Persons with disabilities**

*The AU Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in Africa (2018) provides that:*

- Persons with disabilities have the right to an adequate standard of living for themselves and their families, including adequate food ....., to the continuous improvement of living conditions and to social protection (Article 16(1));
- States Parties shall take appropriate and effective measures to facilitate full enjoyment by persons with disabilities of this right, on the basis of equality, including by –
  - Ensuring accessibility by persons with disabilities to social protection programmes (Article 16(2)(b));
  - Putting financial measures in place to cover disability-related expenses, including through the use of tax exemptions or concessions, cash-transfers, duty waivers and other subsidies (Article 16(2)(c));
- States Parties shall provide for policy, legislative and other measures aimed at ensuring that older persons with disabilities, on an equal basis with others, access universally accessible social protection programmes and other services (Article 25(2)(a)).

**Sources:** AU 2016 and AU 2018.



regional standards, are crucial for an understanding of the scope and application of social assistance in Africa.

#### *United Nations instruments*

The UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) is globally regarded as a leading instrument in the human rights area. Articles 22 and 25 of the UDHR emphasize the right of every person to social security and to an adequate standard of living. Other UN instruments confirm this approach in broad terms. As seen in Figure 9, almost all African UN Member States (50 countries) have ratified the UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) of 1966, which provides for the right to social security, family assistance and maternity protection, and the right to an adequate standard of living. Protection of persons by way of social assistance is also contained in the Convention of the Rights of the Child of 1989 (CRC), ratified by all African countries, the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD) (OHCHR, 2018) and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) (UN, 1981) ratified by almost all countries, the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (ICRMW) (OHCHR, 1990), ratified by 21 countries and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CPRD) (UN, 2006) ratified by 47 countries.

Of all the social assistance related instruments at the UN level, only the CRC has been ratified by all the countries in Africa, as shown in Figure 9. Although not necessarily realized through a claim directly from this right, there is a general commitment by African governments towards children that is also reflected in social assistance programmes and policies. It is interesting that all countries in West Africa, North Africa and Central Africa have ratified the ICESCR, ICERD, CEDAW and CRC, and all West African and North African countries have also ratified the CRPD. Most countries in East Africa and Southern Africa have also ratified these five instruments. Most countries in North Africa and about half in West

Africa have ratified the ICRMW, but few countries in Southern, East and Central Africa have done so.

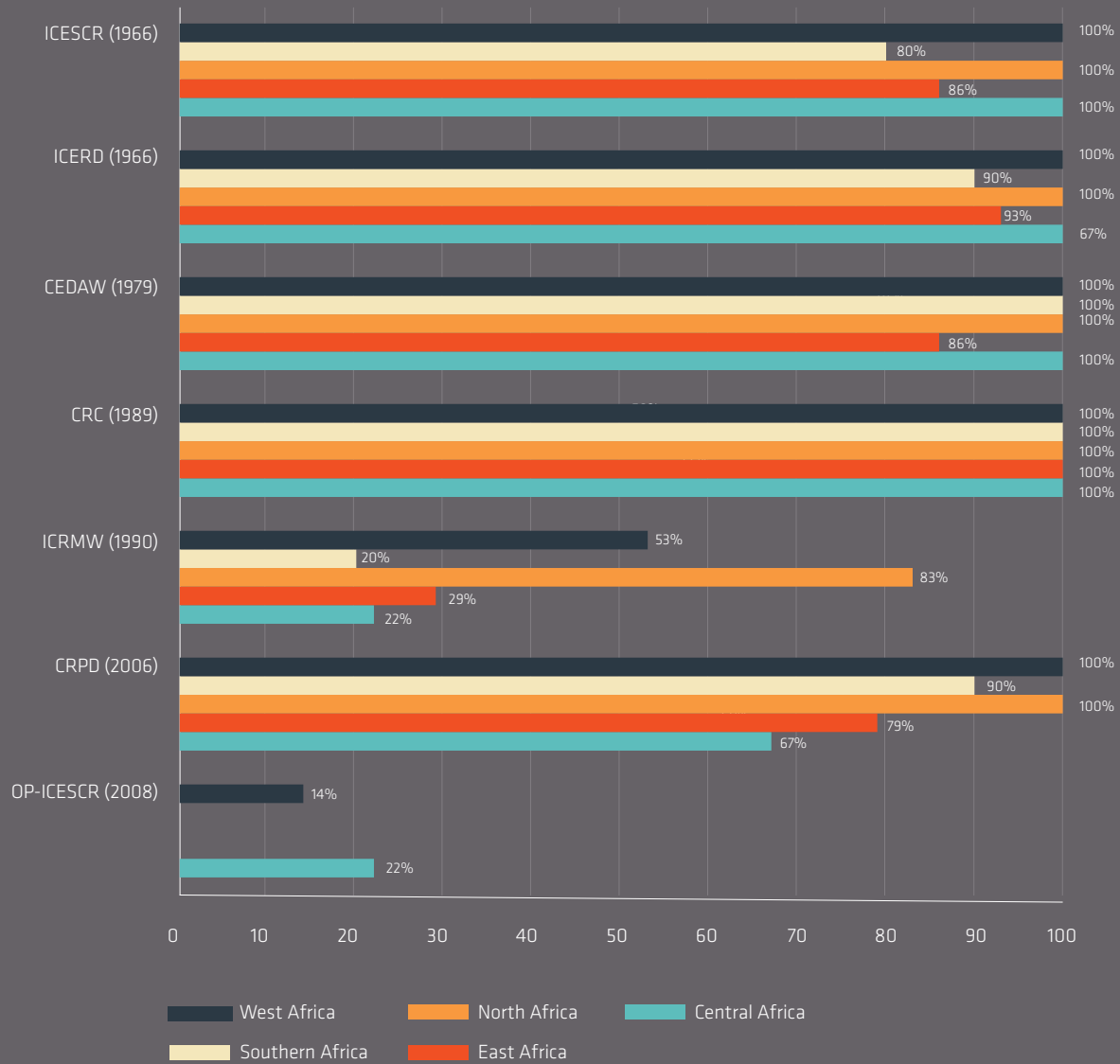
With the adoption of the Agenda 2030 and SDGs, social protection was solidified as one of the most cross-cutting and broad-based development imperatives that contributes to several SDGs and the Leaving No One Behind aspiration. As such, social protection features in several SDGs, for example: SDG 1 to eradicate extreme poverty; SDG 5 in support of gender equality; SDG 8 to promote decent work and inclusive growth; and SDG 10 as a policy instrument to address income inequality.

#### *ILO instruments*

The ILO is a specialized UN agency with a specific mandate to develop and monitor international labour standards. The ILO has a number of instruments that act as a legal framework for social protection, dating back to the 1940s. The Declaration of Philadelphia (1944), part of the ILO's Constitution, calls for the "extension of social security measures to provide a basic income to all in need of such protection and comprehensive medical care" (ILO, 1944a). In 1944 the ILO also adopted two non-binding instruments aimed at fostering the national provision of minimum support in the areas of Income Security (Recommendation 67) (ILO, 1944b) and Medical Care (Recommendation 69) (ILO, 1944c).

In 1952 the ILO adopted the Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention (ILO, 102), which set out social insurance benefits for "prescribed classes of employees" and their families, with provisions for contingencies such as sickness, unemployment, old age, employment injury and maternity. This Convention also made provision for social assistance to citizens and residents who are not formally employed, by specifying a second category of persons eligible for protection: "all residents whose means during the contingency do not exceed limits prescribed" (ILO, 1952, Article 21) and introduced the concept of social protection floors (access to essential healthcare and basic income security) (Box 8).


**FIGURE 9.** Ratification of relevant UN instruments by African countries



**Source:** Primary data compiled for the publication.

\* Glossary: ICESCR – International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights; ICERD – International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; CEDAW – Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women; CRC – Convention on the Rights of the Child; ICRMW – International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families; CRPD – Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

\*\* Note: For purposes of this figure, ratifications also include accessions. According to the UN, “Accession” is the act whereby a state accepts the offer or the opportunity to become a party to a treaty already negotiated and signed by other states. It has the same legal effect as ratification. Accession usually occurs after the treaty has entered into force (UNTC, n.d.).



**BOX 8.** Recommendation Concerning National Floors of Social Protection

Recommendation 202 affirms that “the right to social security is a human right”.

“1. This Recommendation provides guidance to Members to:

(a) establish and maintain, as applicable, social protection floors as a fundamental element of their national social security systems; and

(b) implement social protection floors within strategies for the extension of social security that progressively ensure higher levels of social security to as many people as possible, guided by ILO social security standards.”

“2. For the purpose of this Recommendation, social protection floors are nationally defined sets of basic social security guarantees which secure protection aimed at preventing or alleviating poverty, vulnerability and social exclusion.”

“4. Members should, in accordance with national circumstances, establish as quickly as possible and maintain their social protection floors comprising basic social security guarantees. The guarantees should ensure at a minimum that, over the life cycle, all in need have access to essential health care and to basic income security which together secure effective access to goods and services defined as necessary at the national level.”

“7. Basic social security guarantees should be established by law. National laws and regulations should specify the range, qualifying conditions and levels of the benefits giving effect to these guarantees. Impartial, transparent, effective, simple, rapid, accessible and inexpensive complaint and appeal procedures should also be specified. Access to complaint and appeal procedures should be free of charge to the applicant. Systems should be in place that enhance compliance with national legal frameworks.”

**Source:** ILO 2012.

### **4.3 Application of international instruments and standards in national legal systems**

International social protection instruments and their embedded standards have influenced national social assistance regulatory frameworks to varying extents in different African countries. Understanding whether and how this influence occurs requires assessing several factors at the country level.

#### *(a) Ratification of international social protection instruments and the impact on national legal systems*

The formal ratification of an international or regional instrument does not necessarily prompt or influence the adoption of social assistance laws and programmes. In many cases, political determination and constitutional frameworks informing social assistance entitlements have been the main drivers for such legal reforms, at least in Southern Africa. On the other hand, ratification of international instruments creates international obligations that may have implications for the legal system (see below). Governments may also receive technical assistance from international or regional organizations to help them align their social assistance systems to the standards embedded in ratified instruments (Devereux, 2017).

As noted above, African countries have extensively ratified most UN and AU instruments relating to social protection or social security (see Figure 8 and Figure 9). However, several countries enacted national social protection legislation even before they signed or ratified these instruments, which indicates that the international legal instruments are not a prerequisite for the elaboration of national laws. Legal developments introducing, revising or extending social assistance benefits have been ongoing for several years, for example in Angola, Lesotho, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe. The most striking example is South Africa, which has one of Africa's oldest and most comprehensive legal frameworks for social assistance, but only ratified the ICESCR in 2015.

#### *(b) Reference to international social protection instruments in national constitutions and laws*

There is an emerging trend and increasing evidence of reliance being placed on and reference made to international instruments in constitutions, national laws providing for social assistance, and court judgments.

African constitutions use different methods to give effect to international instruments and their standards. Sometimes they provide for relatively uncomplicated mechanisms for the application of international law. For example, the Constitution of Namibia (1990) stipulates that, unless otherwise provided for, "the general rules of public international law and international agreements binding upon Namibia under this Constitution shall form part of the law of Namibia" (Article 144). Similarly, the Kenyan Constitution (2010) provides that "the general rules of international law shall form part of the law of Kenya" (Article 2(5)) and that "any treaty or convention ratified by Kenya shall form part of the law of Kenya under this constitution" (Article 2(6)). The Moroccan Constitution (2011) proclaims:

The man and the woman enjoy, in equality, the rights and freedoms of civil, political, economic, social, cultural and environmental character, enounced in this Title and in the other provisions of the Constitution, as well as in the international conventions and pacts duly ratified by Morocco (Article 19).

The Constitution of Benin (1990) affirms Benin's attachment to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, and states not only that their provisions make up an integral part of the Constitution and of Beninese law, but that they have a superior status to internal law. The Constitution of Angola stipulates that the provisions of the Constitution and of laws must be interpreted in accordance with the Universal Declaration and the African Charter.

In other cases, such as South Africa, statutory incorporation of the relevant international standards is required before the (ratified) international agreement becomes law in the country. Nevertheless, South Africa's Constitution (1996) places an obligation on courts, tribunals and forums to consider international law when interpreting fundamental rights, including the right to access social security. Therefore, in cases where statutory incorporation is required, it is necessary to adopt legislation that will give effect to these standards. This also applies to international instruments not ratified by countries, or instruments that cannot be ratified (for example, an ILO recommendation such as Recommendation 202 of 2012). Such instruments can only be applied in a country's legal system if the legislature has formally inserted the standards contained in these instruments into the national legal system. This is explicitly acknowledged in the Kenyan Constitution (2010): "The State shall enact and implement legislation to fulfil its international obligations in respect of human rights and fundamental freedoms" (Article 21(4)).

National laws in relation to social protection or social assistance also, at times, refer to international instruments. Gabon's Social Protection Code (2017) provides for "a system of social protection to guarantee better coverage of the various economic and social risks foreseen by Convention 102 and Recommendation 202 of the International Labour Organization" (Article 2). Similarly, Madagascar's Social Protection Code (1994) refers to international labour standards, indicating that the Code aims at ensuring a minimum of social security benefits for everyone.

Court judgments invariably refer to international obligations. This is particularly true of the South African case, given the largely international law-friendly provisions of its 1996 Constitution. For example, in a seminal social assistance judgment related to the issue of social assistance benefits for permanent residents, the Constitutional Court noted that the relevant social assistance legislation is

aimed at giving effect to South Africa's international obligations (SAFLI, 2014).

Finally, African and regional instruments often foresee the implementation of standards contained in international agreements. The Addis Ababa Declaration on Transforming Africa through Decent Work for Sustainable Development included in its continent-wide policy priorities the extension of "social protection by establishing and maintaining national social protection floors based on the Social Protection Floors Recommendation, 2012" (ILO, 2015). The AU Agenda 2063 (AU 2015a: 34) states that "as a protection against poverty, African countries should build social protection floor and minimum package to improve access to essential health care and basic income security for children and families, women and men of working age, in particular in the informal economy and rural sector, and for older persons".

From a REC perspective, according to the SADC Protocol on Employment and Labour (SADC, 2014), "every Member State shall establish, maintain and progressively raise its system of social security to a level consistent with international instruments, by ratifying and implementing ILO Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention 1952 (No. 102) and implementing the ILO National Floors of Social Protection Recommendation 2012 (No. 202), the Charter of Fundamental Social Rights in SADC and the SADC Code on Social Security" (Article 11(2)).

### *(c) Reporting obligations and monitoring of international instruments*

Ratification of international instruments introduces reporting obligations, and supervisory institutions sometimes undertake reviews to monitor compliance with these instruments. These reports provide some sense of the application of the standards contained in these instruments to the area of social assistance. These supervisory institutions also compile comments on international instruments. Examples include the General Comments of the Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 19 on the Right to



Social Security (UN Economic and Social Council), and the Principles and Guidelines on the Implementation of Economic, Social and Cultural Rights in the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights.

ILO Member States also have reporting obligations, for example in relation to Conventions ratified by Member States. Responses are then provided by ILO's Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations (CEACR) in the form of Observations or Direct Requests.

#### **4.4 Claiming the right to social assistance**

The recognition of social protection (including social assistance) as a right and its incorporation in international legal instruments is closely associated with what has become known as a rights-based approach to social protection. This implies that (Fombad, 2013; Piron, 2004):

- social protection should be considered as an entitlement that citizens can claim, not as charity;
- states have an obligation on to recognize and guarantee social protection;
- core obligations and minimum standards may be expected in assessing compliance; and
- mechanisms exist to hold those who design and deliver social protection accountable.

Support for this rights-based approach can be found in international treaties and conventions, as well as in African constitutions and laws, as explained above. At the national level, individual entitlements to social assistance are increasingly found in domestic laws (at times linked to constitutional obligations on states to provide social assistance). The laws emphasize a minimum level of support with a focus on vulnerable groups. Moreover, accountability mechanisms and complaints and appeals frameworks are emerging. While still relatively weak, civil society plays an increasingly important role in advocating for the implementation of the right to social protection and strengthening the ability of rights-holders to claim it.

One indicator that rights-based social assistance programmes are becoming more common in Africa is the "increasing trend in sub-Saharan African countries of establishing social protection policies and drafting social protection bills" (Sabates-Wheeler and others, 2017: 13), as seen in Chapter 3. Nonetheless, the majority of social assistance programmes remain discretionary rather than rights-based, lacking a formalized legal mandate (Olivier, Adrianarison and McLaughlin, 2013: 31). This might be because "governments are apprehensive of the fiscal costs and potential legal challenges that are associated with rights-based approaches" (Devereux, 2017: 12), which is also reflected in the principle of "progressive realization" of the right to social protection expressed in some African constitutions. This is true even of some of the largest programmes in Africa, such as Ethiopia's PSNP and Ghana's LEAP (Sabates-Wheeler and others, 2017).

##### **4.4.1 Justiciability**

Giving effect to the right to social assistance requires appropriate national legislation. "Hard law" instruments contain standards that are legally binding on a country, because it has formally assumed obligations under the instrument, usually by ratifying the instrument. As a rule, legislation needs to be adopted to give effect to the standards contained in the instrument. "Soft law" consists of imprecise standards, generated by declarations adopted by diplomatic conferences or resolutions of international organizations, that are intended to serve as guidelines to states in their conduct, but which lack the status of law (Klabbers, 1996).

The phased development of legal frameworks means that social assistance typically has both "hard law" and "soft law" components. For example, many countries in southern Africa first introduced a legal framework for social pensions. This meant that only older persons could claim their right to social assistance, whereas people with disabilities and children in poor households could not do so until legal frameworks for disability and child benefits came into effect.

#### 4.4.2 Enforceability

Hard laws that make social assistance justiciable are a necessary but not sufficient step towards the realization of a rights-based approach. These laws need to be enforced by the institutions of national legal systems. There are a few cases in Africa that reflect enforcement of social assistance legal frameworks. The *Khosa* case in South Africa (see Box 9), shows the importance of legal processes, particularly independent courts, to enforce the “hard laws” and turn the rights and justiciability that exist in theory into practice.

Given that most African countries do not have hard laws for social assistance that courts could use as the basis on which to hold the state accountable, recourse to justiciability is based on the constitution. Several considerations play a role in determining whether a constitutional guarantee of social assistance is enforceable and justiciable. These include whether the individual is given an entitlement to such protection—a central element of a rights-based approach—and whether the State has a constitutional duty to take action to deliver this entitlement (ILO, 2011a).

An enforceable individual entitlement approach is implicit in the constitutions of Kenya, Tunisia and South Africa, as well as Egypt (“All citizens who have no access to the social security system have the right to social security to ensure a decent life” (Egypt, 2014)); Cabo Verde (“Everyone shall have the right to social security” (2010)); and Ethiopia (“Every Ethiopian national has the right to equal access to publicly funded social services” (1994)). Constitutions that focus on the *duty of the State* include Gabon (“The State ... guarantees to all ... the protection of health, social security” (1991)); Eritrea (“The State shall secure, within available means, the social welfare of all citizens” (1997)); and Senegal (“The human person is sacred. It is inviolable. The State has the obligation to respect it and protect it” (2009)); see also Niger (2010). Some constitutions contain provisions that highlight both an individual’s entitlement and the state’s duty to provide. Again,

the Kenyan and South African constitutions reflect this approach, as does Ethiopia’s (“[T]o the extent the country’s resources permit, policies shall aim to provide all Ethiopians access to ... social security” (1994)).

Some constitutions state explicitly, either in their preamble or in a section or chapter on fundamental objectives and directive principles of state policy, that certain rights provided for are non-justiciable. Social assistance and other socioeconomic rights are typically listed under this exemption, often citing resource constraints as a justification. For example, the Zambian Constitution (1996) stipulates that the State will endeavour to provide social protection-related rights to its citizens, subject to the availability of resources. Similar non-binding references to social protection rights are contained in the constitutions of Lesotho, Namibia, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Eswatini and Tanzania (Fombad, 2013).

#### 4.4.3 Social accountability

Countries use a variety of mechanisms to ensure accountability by social protection administrations. These administrations are invariably government institutions answerable to a lead minister or the relevant ministry or are at times part of the ministry. However, there have been attempts to create separate governing institutions. The Social Assistance Act of Kenya (2013) provided for a National Social Assistance Authority with its own management board, but this was never established.

Other accountability mechanisms include parliamentary (portfolio) committees, ministerial committees and constitutional institutions.





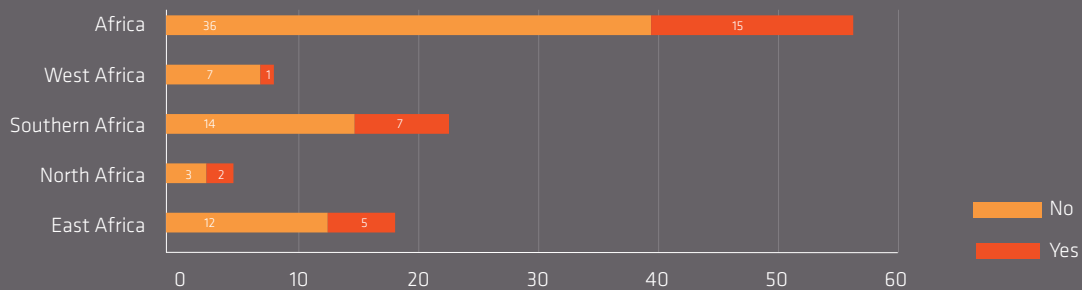


**BOX 9.** Effective constitutional protection and the role of courts in protecting social assistance as a human right: A South African case study

The South African Constitution of 1996 is widely regarded as a progressive instrument for the protection of socioeconomic rights. It emphasizes redressing imbalances of the past and empowering the historically disadvantaged, the poor and the vulnerable in society. According to the Constitutional Court: “The right of access to social security, including social assistance, for those unable to support themselves and their dependants was entrenched because society in the RSA valued human beings and wanted to ensure that people were afforded their basic needs.” (SAFLI 2004).

The Constitution compels the State to give effect to these rights, and the courts have made it clear that they will grant orders that force the State to ensure that these rights are properly realized. For example, in the seminal *Khosa* case, the Constitutional Court held that a statutory provision which excluded permanent residents and their children from access to social assistance was unconstitutional: it infringed their rights to human dignity, equality and access to appropriate social assistance (Olivier, 2018).

**FIGURE 10.** Social assistance programmes in Africa that allow for appeals as at 2015



Source: UNDP 2019.



Recently, however, there has been a tendency to establish social assistance accountability mechanisms outside the framework of the formal structures. Social accountability implies the participation of citizens in the provision of public services due to them, at relevant stages—including the design, monitoring, feedback and complaint stages, and using among others grievance mechanisms or social audits. For example, civil society might organize platforms or participate in consultations on the preparation of a law, policy or monitoring system. Such mechanisms serve as an important interface between the government and citizens via civil society, leading to more responsive and transparent governments (Sabates-Wheeler and others, 2017). The existence of such solutions varies according to the nature of the political system from country to country, and the extent to which civil society activism or NGOs campaigning for social rights are tolerated.

Some of these mechanisms may be initiated by government itself to enhance citizen participation. In South Africa, the Department of Performance, Monitoring and Evaluation in the Presidency (DPME) has initiated a “Framework for Strengthening Citizen-Government Partnerships for Monitoring Frontline Service Delivery”, involving a Citizen-Based Monitoring (CBM) Pilot: “This Government initiated accountability mechanism represents an effort to include citizens’ experience of service delivery into their overall monitoring, evaluation and performance frameworks” (Livingstone, 2014: 17). Other such institutions are supported by non-governmental organizations, in particular advocacy organizations. However, there are also examples of informal, citizen-based institutions set up by communities—such as older people’s associations in Cameroon, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Kenya and Uganda (HelpAge International, n.d.).

In Ghana, steps have been taken to ensure the participation of beneficiaries in accountability structures—in the form of beneficiary forums, community LEAP implementation committees (CLICs), and grievance mechanisms (complaints and appeals). Despite shortcomings experienced with these

mechanisms, they “have played an important role in facilitating the participation of previously excluded local populations in decision-making processes at the local level ... LEAP has “created pathways that encouraged local participation”, enabling beneficiaries to “become active and responsible citizens rather than being passive receivers of social handouts”” (Sabates-Wheeler and others, 2017: 33-34).

In Mozambique, NGOs and international organizations have joined forces, via a national civil society platform for social protection, to strengthen national and sub-national engagement with government and recognize the role of civil society as a key partner of the Government in social protection policy and programmes. This is intended to be achieved via, for example, involving citizens in monitoring government action in the social protection domain. The purpose is to improve programme awareness amongst the public and beneficiaries and to ensure greater ownership of the programme at community level by both local government and the general public (HelpAge International, n.d.).

In 2006 the Ethiopian Government initiated a nationwide programme to promote basic services by involving the public. Local government officials were trained in how to explain budgets and solicit citizen feedback, citizens were trained in budget literacy, and accountability and fiduciary systems were strengthened through quarterly and annual audits (World Bank, 2012).

Two key objectives are served by these mechanisms: ensuring and improving quality service delivery and enhancing the impact of the programme (HelpAge International, n.d.). These mechanisms also serve as a channel for individual and collective grievance and redress, as well as the monitoring of social assistance programme implementation. As such, these mechanisms are an expression of the principle that social assistance design and reform should be envisaged as a participatory and socially consensual process (ISSA, 2010), as in the case of Kenya:

[S]ocial protection programmes, particularly safety nets, have established relatively robust accountability mechanisms. These include a suite of measures to ensure fiduciary control and “upwards” accountability to management and Parliamentarians. Many safety nets have also established strong systems to create “downwards” accountability to beneficiaries and communities. For most programmes, this is translated into the widespread use of community structures to monitor implementation progress and advocate for beneficiary rights (RoK, 2012 viii-ix).

#### 4.4.4 Complaints and appeals

Access to justice and the protection of the rights of social assistance clients require that they have access to adequate complaints and appeal mechanisms. ILO guidelines establish two stages of dispute resolution (ILO, 1952, 2011a). First, applicants or beneficiaries should have the right to lodge a complaint and to access the review procedure within the social protection institution that decided on the issue. Secondly, if the applicant or beneficiary still feels aggrieved and the matter remains unresolved, he or she should have access to a higher-level “external” appeal body which is institutionally and structurally separate and independent from the “internal” adjudication body.

Worldwide there are several best practice examples of well-developed dispute resolution mechanisms operating within public social assistance programmes. This is not generally true of African countries, where little provision for dispute resolution has been made except for the involvement of the general court system (see ILO, 2011a and, in relation to SADC, Olivier, 2011). Figure 10 measures whether a programme allows applicants to appeal against selection decisions; it does not distinguish between internal review and external adjudication (UNDP, 2019).

With respect to appeal, the general experience is that a tribunal, or specialized court, is preferred to the general court system of a country. Tribunals or specialized courts have the advantage that they can

solve disputes expeditiously, without adherence to formal and strict legal procedures, and inexpensively, given that legal representation is usually forbidden.

African countries often use the normal court system for the resolution of social assistance disputes (see, for example, section 26 of the Kenyan Social Assistance Act, 2013— an appeal lies with the Magistrates Court). At times, a specialized institution is created for this purpose. The South African Social Assistance Act, 2004 and the Regulations in terms of the Act provide for both an internal review and an external appeal, which must be lodged with the Independent Tribunal for Social Assistance Appeals.

In addition to the formal approach to dispute resolution, a more informal process, informed by social accountability mechanisms, was incrementally introduced in recent times, as elaborated above. By primarily using representative collective institutions—set up as government and/or NGO initiatives or established by local communities themselves—clients have been able to raise not only the kind of (individual) disputes provided for by the formal system described above, but also other (collective) grievances relating to service delivery.

#### 4.5 Conclusions

African national constitutions fulfil an important role in the guarantee and delivery of social assistance. As is the case with national laws providing for social assistance, they focus on a range of vulnerable categories of people in need of state support. They also provide a yardstick for government accountability as well as a mandate to the legislature to adopt social assistance legislation and to government to give effect to these laws and implement social assistance policies and programmes. Experiences in Africa differ as to whether the constitutional provisions regarding social assistance are enforceable. The strength of the constitutional guarantee and its implementation are also dependent on whether effective judicial mechanisms, efficient remedies and appropriate access to these mechanisms and

remedies are ensured, both in the legal framework and in practice.

Adopting social assistance laws is increasingly becoming characteristic of the way in which African countries provide for access to social assistance. Legislation is mostly adopted in a phased manner, which essentially reflects national priorities and fiscal ability at a given point in time. Statutory provision for social assistance may be informed by overarching legislation, which covers the different components of a country's social security regime and is at times accompanied by the adoption of universal measures. Linking monetary social assistance benefits to other benefits and services, and in particular to labour market integration and social inclusion, has also become a hallmark of recent social assistance legal reforms.

International social protection instruments and their embedded standards are important, although it is difficult to indicate precisely the extent to which these instruments have concretely influenced the shape and content of a country's social assistance legal, policy and programmatic frameworks. Much depends on the effectiveness of the reporting obligations that countries take upon themselves when adopting these instruments. It is noteworthy that African countries have generally adopted UN and African continental instruments. Many of the continental instruments are of recent origin and contain significant provisions affecting access to social assistance in Africa. Certain ILO instruments, in particular Recommendation 202 on National Social Protection Floors, have also been instrumental in giving content to social assistance legal frameworks in Africa. This instrument, as is the case with many of the continental and RECs instruments, requires a minimum level of protection to be available, in particular to the poor and vulnerable.

A range of formal and informal accountability mechanisms supports the implementation of social assistance laws, programmes and policies. These include recent developments regarding the establishment of social accountability structures, which involve and secure the participation of citizens.

Also, based on international standards and worldwide practice, several African countries have developed social assistance complaints, review and appeal mechanisms.

The AU's Social Policy Framework for Africa (2008) urges the recognition of social security as a state obligation, with provision to be made in national legislation. Simultaneously, at the level of international instruments, recent regional and continental (AU) social protection instruments in Africa, as well as increasingly in many African constitutions, the right to social protection generally and social assistance in particular, has come to be appreciated as a human right. This implies that, in addition to the notion of a state obligation, this right accrues to individuals and can be enforced as such. These developments, alongside several other considerations discussed in this chapter, underscore the importance of adopting an appropriate legislative framework. In this way, the social assistance legal and policy framework in African countries contributes to a rights-based framework for social assistance. Important achievements have been made; additional reforms will support the further unfolding of this in Africa.

African countries that place social assistance in a rights-based framework, effectively acknowledge that users of the system—e.g. applicants for and beneficiaries of social assistance transfers—are not mere passive recipients of the transfers being given to them as a matter of courtesy or grace. As such, adopting a rights-based approach is an expression of respect for human dignity and transforms users of the system into active participants (Sabates-Wheeler and others, 2017).

To conclude, three critical issues emerge. First, rights are only justiciable and enforceable if they are underpinned by effective legal frameworks. Second, accountability mechanisms, including supervisory institutions, governmental and parliamentary oversight, and independent complaint and appeal mechanisms are crucial, if a social contract between the state and the citizen is to exist. Third, civil society organizations need to be actively holding the state accountable and empowering citizens to make use of legal mechanisms to claim their right to social assistance.

Chapter 5

# INSTITUTIONALIZING SOCIAL ASSISTANCE





## Chapter 5 | Institutionalizing Social Assistance

### 5.1 Introduction

While legal frameworks provide a legal basis for the right to social assistance, institutions play a decisive role in how effectively this right is realized. The importance of “strengthened institutions and capacity” is recognized for the first time as a global development goal in its own right, and not only as a means to attain other goals, under SDG 16 (focusing on “peace, justice and strong institutions”). Social protection contributes to peaceful, just and inclusive development by requiring and demonstrating effective, accountable and transparent institutions (SDG target 16.6) as well as responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision-making (SDG target 16.7) (Behrendt and others, 2017).

Efficient government structures responsible for social assistance, transparent rules, processes, systems and human resources are needed to ensure that the right people receive the right benefits, in the right amount and on time. Over the past decade, many countries in Africa have established long-term strategies for the development of social assistance programmes with clear rules, executed with adequate administrative structures and predictable funding.

National governments are embedding social assistance within their core activities and responsibilities, creating stable and permanent delivery systems. This process of “institutionalization” of social protection (Barma, Huynems and Vinuela, 2014) is important because it ensures policy consistency within governments over time and across changing political environments, commitment of adequate human and material resources and budgetary provisions, and creation of the required capacity for social assistance delivery systems. Lastly, stable rules and accountability frames

allow poor and vulnerable beneficiaries to plan, invest and reap the returns of increased income security.

This chapter explores recent trends in institutionalization across Africa. Section 5.2 discusses the relevance of a policy framework for scaling up social assistance and ensuring its political sustainability. Section 5.3 discusses the coordination of social assistance at policy and administrative levels. With increased policy and programme ownership and financial commitment to social assistance programmes, the essential role of government capacity and coordination has now come to the fore. Section 5.4 assesses the organization of social assistance delivery at different levels of government, focusing on the role of local governments. Section 5.5 covers issues of organizational capacity. Section 5.6 discusses the development of core administrative functions of social assistance.

### 5.2 Policy frameworks and political commitment

Policy frameworks provide an overarching vision for social protection according to national priorities, define the objectives and functions of social assistance programmes, and determine the forms of overarching institutional coordination to resolve conflicting lines of command and policy directions (Crook, 2010). The existence of a policy or strategy, defining a vision for social protection, its principles and the roles and responsibilities of actors, are thus key elements of institutionalized social protection systems (Székely, 2015).

In many African countries, the establishment of flagship social assistance programmes preceded the development of social protection policy or strategic

frameworks (Kaltenborn and others, 2017). In fact, most national social protection policies have been elaborated in the last decade whereas the programmes have a longer history (see Chapter 3). In North Africa, social protection is usually included in national development plans and social assistance has been characterized by a multitude of programmes administered by ministries of social affairs. Recently, Morocco, Egypt and Sudan have experimented with cash transfer programmes, but a social protection policy framework is not yet in place (Devereux, 2016). In sub-Saharan Africa, Uganda, Rwanda, Lesotho and Nigeria, among others, have adopted policies or strategic frameworks after trial and testing of social cash transfer programmes (Granvik 2015; Freeland and Khondker, 2015).

The timing and motivation for setting up a social protection policy framework differ from country to country. In Lesotho, the adoption of a national social protection strategy coincided with a severe drought in 2012. Thanks to the social protection strategy, the government could use an already tested instrument –child grants for vulnerable families–to help tackle a pressing problem, with the assurance that it would be aligned with its medium- and long-term vision for social assistance for the country. Domestic spending was increased to expand and top-up child grants for the relief of increased poverty and food insecurity, particularly in rural areas (Davey, 2016).

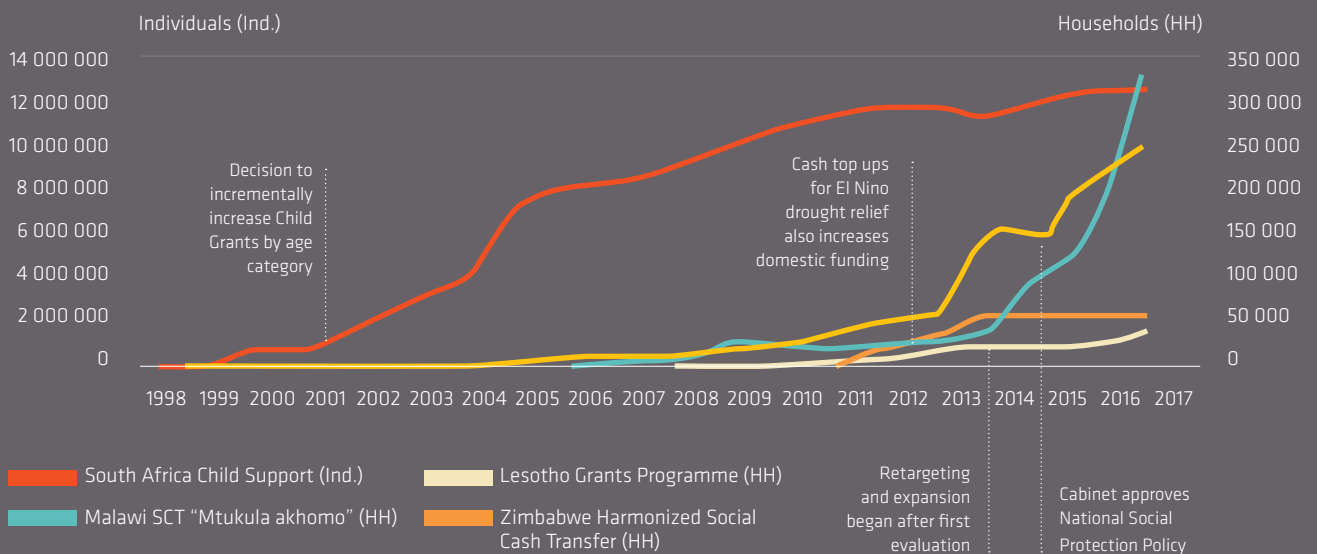
Other governments have suspended further fiscal commitments until the approval of a budgeted policy and strategic framework. For example, for a long-time social protection in Nigeria was conceptualized as anti-poverty programmes and humanitarian assistance, which lacked continuity and reliability, especially across political cycles. The Federal Government initiated a conditional cash transfer programme in late 2016 before adopting a national social protection policy framework in mid-2017, which allowed the Government to increase its commitment to the programme.

Figure 11 shows different triggers that have prompted the scaling up of social assistance programmes in

four African countries. Policy is needed to provide clarity and consensus on the direction of government. But policy outcomes are often the result of long and sustained efforts and the productive combination of political acumen and coalition-building, from policy champions at different levels of government, grassroots civil society organizations to academia, often with the support of international partners; they do not necessarily emanate from the top (Davis and others, 2016). For example, in South Africa, support for social grants from political elites was not a given after apartheid, as the country was struggling with inherited fiscal constraints, and ideological divisions between those who believed in prioritizing economic growth and those who argued for an extensive social welfare regime. Only thanks to systematic engagement from civil society movements, academia, and ministerial leadership did arguments for a comprehensive social security system change the policy landscape over time (Seekings, 2016; Bruni, 2016). In Zambia, Pruce and Hickey (2017) discuss the role of a “policy coalition of donors, government officials and civil society actors” to build an evidence base for the Social Cash Transfer (SCT). Ultimately it was the confluence of evidence, strategic mobilization and political opportunity, combined with a timely social protection policy framework that led to a significant expansion of social protection in 2013, including a 700% increase in the Government budget. This scaling up has continued, reaching nationwide coverage, suggesting that the programme has reached a point of political irreversibility.

One key impact of policies is their ability to help coordinate and direct the efforts of key government departments towards common national goals, which reinforces the holistic nature of government’s involvement in social protection delivery. Thus, Mozambique’s National Basic Social Protection Strategy 2016-2024 was approved in 2016 by the Council of Ministers (Mozambique, 2016). The strategy requires the creation of a solid implementation structure to deliver on its objectives. Ethiopia’s NSPP (Ethiopia, 2012) was approved in 2014. Despite its scale and longevity, the country’s

**FIGURE 11.** Defining moments in selected social assistance programmes, 1998–2018



Source: Davis and others 2016.

**BOX 10.** Dedicated ministerial departments for policy supervision

South Africa’s Department of Social Development (DSD) was established in 1937 (under a different name) and is one of the oldest ministries in Africa responsible for social protection policy and legislation. DSD does not administer social assistance – this is the task of the South African Social Security Agency (SASSA) – but has an important monitoring role shared with parliamentary committees within the National Assembly, as social assistance programmes are funded entirely by the Government through the national budget.

In Mozambique, the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Action (MGCAS) is mandated by law to coordinate and provide policy direction for activities under “basic social security”. MGCAS oversees the administration role played by the National Institute for Social Action (INAS). In North Africa (for example in Egypt), the supervision of government social programmes is often under a line ministry in charge of social affairs, but emergency programmes such as food distribution, cash and voucher-based unconditional transfers may fall under other government entities such as ministries of health, education, agriculture or finance (for general fuel or food subsidies).

New ministries have been created over the past decade, to focus on a broader social protection agenda. In Ghana, the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MoGCSP) was created in 2013 to replace the Ministry of Women and Children, taking on responsibility for the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme and others, while also coordinating the implementation of the National Social Protection Strategy. In Lesotho, a motion to create a “stand-alone accountable unit” was tabled in parliament in 2009, culminating in the creation of the Ministry of Social Development in 2012 – guaranteeing “strengthened engagement and leadership” (Pellerano and others, 2016).



flagship PSNP remained less than a fully national safety net. In accordance with the policy, the PSNP strategy for 2015-19 aimed to increase both the geographic scope of the programme and the Government's financial commitment.

Being inspired by development partners, many policies and strategies have not set definitive blueprints for social assistance programmes; instead, programmes have evolved in response to real-life local circumstances. Improvements have been prompted by the increased voice of communities and beneficiaries, thanks to the emergence of social accountability instruments, grievance and complaint mechanisms, structured collective accountability instruments (community score cards, citizen report cards, etc.), and community committees (Andrews, Pritchett, and Woolcock (2017), as discussed in Chapter 4. There is anecdotal evidence of individual programmes having been substantially modified as a result of views expressed by communities. In Zambia, for example, while the national policy was instrumental for the expansion of the SCT in Zambia, "the opposition that emerged when it became more visible who would and would not receive cash transfers under the National SCT scheme resulted in a drastic change of the SCT targeting approach" (van Ufford and others, 2016).

### **5.3 Institutional coordination**

This section focuses on governmental structures and processes, including horizontal coordination and the alignment and harmonization of stakeholder activities in a coherent and holistic way to reach clearly identified and shared objectives (TRANSFORM, 2016). Achieving institutional coordination at the policy level includes a dimension of "policy supervision" and a dimension of "cross-sector administration". Each of these is explored in turn below.

#### **5.3.1 Policy supervision**

Policy supervision or oversight is in place where there is an authority or a coordinating body to hold line

ministries to account against the achievement of common objectives. The date when such an entity was created is relevant, as it is an indicator of its stability, especially across subsequent electoral cycles. Moreover, the "higher in the government hierarchy they sit, the higher the chance they will be effective in influencing policy decisions" (Martinez, 2017). In several African countries, the role of policy supervision falls to dedicated line ministries, some of which have been created in recent years (see Box 10 and Annex B.1). Having a ministry or department dedicated to social protection ensures greater visibility for the sector that may have traditionally been bundled together with other portfolios such as health, labour and gender.

Often, new ministries in charge of the social assistance portfolio have limited convening power and authority within government. For example, Lesotho's old age grant is run by the Ministry of Finance, and Namibia's child benefits are managed and delivered under the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare. Nevertheless, the need for a line ministry with responsibility for sectoral oversight is increasingly recognized. The responsibilities assumed by higher offices in government, notably ministries of finance, can also be considered as part of a transitional process, while the national administration is finding a better functional structure and the line ministries' capacity is being built. In such a transition phase, the capacity for policy oversight can also be limited by additional reporting and accountability lines to development partners—as in Kenya, Ethiopia, Zimbabwe and Malawi. While institutionalization in these cases is taking place, it is a long and arduous process.

Countries with clearly designated line ministries in charge of social assistance are experimenting with the creation of inter-ministerial steering committees, in an attempt to ensure coordination of a broader social protection portfolio. But in some cases, social sector ministries struggle to attain continuous representation and support from other organs of government. Moreover, the existence of such



structures is not in itself a driver of more functional horizontal coordination in practice (especially if they convene infrequently). To address the need for operational functionality, some countries have set up permanent secretariats and technical committees (see Box 11). In other cases, including Mozambique and Zambia, advisory groups have been created, involving international partners, government and implementers, contributing jointly to policy design and operational implementation.

### 5.3.2 Cross-sector administration

Achieving institutional coordination at the programme (rather than policy) level requires a second dimension: administrative coordination across sectors. Are relations between social assistance programmes formalized through a mandated agency? If not, are there common administrative tools and/or functional communication structures? The establishment of one ministry or agency responsible for the implementation of all social protection programmes and functions is a concrete measure of institutionalization (Székely, 2015), as this should guarantee a clear institutional mandate, a dedicated budget, and capacity to implement the mandate within an adequate legislative framework. Mozambique, Seychelles, South Africa and Tanzania are examples of countries implementing social assistance through a single semi-autonomous government-led agency.

In Mozambique, social insurance and social assistance are managed by two agencies: the National Institute of Social Security (INSS) and the National Institute of Social Action (INAS). In Tanzania, the Tanzania Social Action Fund (TASAF) runs the National Productive Safety Net. In Rwanda, the Local Administrative Entities Development Agency (LODA) is currently responsible for the implementation of social assistance programmes, but the Government is considering establishing a semi-autonomous agency. Similar intentions in Kenya have been recently halted by a ban on the proliferation of semi-autonomous agencies. The rationale for the creation of these agencies varies

across countries—for selected examples of these historical trajectories, see Box 12. Overall, it is clear that creating an agency responsible for delivery can ensure: clear mandates, roles and responsibilities; professionalization of services and focus on performance; the ability to attract and retain more talented and motivated staff; consistency of service provision through service level agreements; and separation of service delivery from political interference (TRANSFORM, 2017).

Interesting variations to this model exist in countries where historical contingencies—most often development partner financing—have meant that individual programmes are nested institutionally under government departments but constitute independent management units. This was the case for TASAF in Tanzania (nested within the President’s office), for the Social Assistance Grant for Empowerment (SAGE) in Uganda (nested within the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social development and managed by a private consultancy) and for the Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP) in Kenya (nested within the Ministry of Devolution and managed by a public body under that ministry). Countries have recently been moving away from this “nested” approach, towards truly embedding expertise in government departments, in a new effort to build government capacity and establish a common operating framework for all government programmes. But this approach has its own challenges, especially when expertise funded by development partners operates under conflicting lines of accountability, sometimes leading to conflict and the risk of parallel systems within government itself. Outsourcing some administrative functions to the private sector is also increasingly popular, most commonly programme payment systems requiring specialized expertise (see Section 5.6.3 below).




**BOX 11.** National interministerial social protection coordination bodies

In Southern Africa, Malawi has created a National Social Support Steering Committee (NSSSC) and a National Social Support Technical Committee (NSSTC), yet both struggle to overcome the relative isolation of the country's programmes implemented through various line ministries. Similar efforts have been made in Lesotho and Mozambique.

In West Africa, national interministerial bodies are common (see Annex B.2). Niger adopted a decree in 2014 creating the *Comité interministériel de coordination de la protection sociale* (CICPS) to coordinate all ministries with an interest in social protection, reporting directly to the Prime Minister's office. In Burkina Faso, the Government put in place a National Permanent Secretariat for Social Protection (*Conseil National de la Protection Sociale*, CNPS) in 2013 to serve as an interministerial coordination mechanism. The CNPS is chaired by the prime minister at the highest political level and includes a safety net coordinating body chaired by the Ministry of Social Action (MASSN) (Honorati, Gentilini and Yemtsov, 2015).

Similar institutions were established in Mali (the Interministerial Steering Committee for National Policy and National Action Plan), in Nigeria (the National Social Safety Net Coordination Office, under the Vice President), in Togo (the National Committee for the Promotion of Social Protection) and in Côte d'Ivoire (the Interministerial Committee for Social Protection). In Senegal, a Delegation on Social Protection and National Solidarity (DSPNS), attached to the President's Office, was created in 2012 and chairs the Interministerial Steering Committee of the NSPS, which involves the ministries concerned with social protection, employers' organizations, trades unions, civil society actors and representatives from local communities (Pino and Confalonieri, 2014).





**BOX 12.** Implementation of social assistance through agencies

In South Africa, the Supreme Court found that “social assistance is a matter that cannot be regulated effectively by provincial legislation and that requires to be regulated or coordinated by uniform norms and standards that apply generally throughout the Republic, for effective performance” (Bruni, 2016). Legislation was therefore introduced laying the basis for a centralized national agency to administer social assistance. SASSA was established in 2006 and is responsible for the management, implementation and payment of social grants nationally, under the supervision of DSD.

In Seychelles the Agency for Social Protection (ASP) was launched in 2012 to ensure the provision of comprehensive social security services and social relief against vulnerability, following the merger of the Social Security Fund and the Social Welfare Agency. As such, Seychelles is the only country in Africa that achieves administrative integration across social assistance (tax-funded) and social insurance (contributions by employers and workers deducted from income tax) in one independent agency (with the exception of the national pension fund which is run separately).

In Mozambique, INAS, a subordinate of MGCAS, is the agency responsible for delivery of social assistance programmes, with direct budget provided through the Ministry of Finance. INAS is a decentralized administrative agency that has 30 offices or delegations across the country. Given their limited footprint at the district level, delegations are normally responsible for a number of districts and report directly to headquarters in Maputo. Since 2016, INAS has been working with a new organogram to reflect recent changes in strategy. The Government has also invested in a new building, which symbolically launches the implementing agency into a new era.

One key driver of greater harmonization of operations across programmes and government departments is the use of integrated information systems for social protection and other sectors, operationalized as Integrated Beneficiary Registries, Social Registries, or a combination of the two (Barca, 2017; Leite and others, 2017), as summarized in Annex B.2. However, having such a system in place does not lead automatically to enhanced cross-sector administrative coordination. This needs to be achieved purposefully; lack of attention to the underlying administrative support systems may result in failure of the integrated information systems.

#### **5.4 Organizational structure**

Organizational structure is concerned with how organizations' mandates are aligned at different levels of government and whether they have the necessary functionalities to enable them to play their individual roles within a wider implementation system. We will analyse this from several angles, starting with the structure for vertical coordination (from central to local level). We then consider the underlying issue of organizational capacity (staffing, processes and procedures, material resources) and how this affects core administrative functions.

Local governments in Africa play an important role in social protection; the delivery of social transfers and services (from registration through to case management and monitoring) requires close geographic proximity to the vulnerable groups being supported, even in remote rural areas (UNDP, 2014). However, "ongoing slow decentralization processes have shifted responsibilities to lower tiers of government", but—in most cases—without adequate reallocation of financial or human resources (UNDP, 2014). In countries where social protection administration is not housed in one line ministry, roles, responsibilities and lines of accountability at local level are complex and somewhat ambiguous, undermining effective delivery (UNCDF, 2010). Figure 12 shows that decentralization of

programme implementation is not accompanied by decentralization of decision-making: most programmes (with exceptions in West Africa) reported low levels of discretion for local authorities implementing programmes, leaving them with little or no flexibility to adjust the programme to local needs or changing circumstances. On the other hand, in some contexts decentralized programme management is not appropriate or feasible, due to lack of capacity and infrastructure at local level. For these reasons as well as because of political economy contexts, the level of centralization is generally high in most programmes in Africa.

Challenges in establishing clear lines of accountability and coordination down to local levels are common, but some countries are finding creative solutions. For example, Kenya's Social Assistance Unit does not have implementing structures at decentralized levels and relies on the Department of Social Development at county, sub-county and community levels to implement programmes effectively. In Mozambique, while there is a clear delineation of roles and responsibilities between INAS and MGCAS at the national level, the institutional arrangements for these two entities are less clear at the sub-national level. This includes reporting lines to District Administrators (which have overall responsibility for staff and financing at the district level) rather than INAS headquarters and lack of clear administrative hierarchy (establishing formal linkages, reporting or accountability functions) between INAS and local offices of MGCAS, which are combined with those of the Ministry of Health to form the District Services of Health, Women and Social Action (Kardan and others, 2017b).

Lack of information flows from central to local level—consistent with a clear strategy for internal communications—and lack of structures for coordination at local level present further challenges. In Malawi, for example, District Councils (are not always informed of social protection activities in their districts and there is no systematic flow of information down from the National Social

Support Programme (NSSP) to the district and sub-district levels. The proliferation of ad hoc committees for implementing social protection and related programmes, and the lack of forums for coordination at local level, reinforce fragmentation of implementation—with recent attempts to address the issue only partially successful to date.

In West Africa, local authorities and communities are closely associated with social programme delivery. Ghana has established Regional Social Protection Coordination and Monitoring Committees and District Social Protection Committees, which hold regular meetings to identify, discuss and find solutions to coordination and implementation challenges. In Senegal, the conditional cash transfer programme for family benefits, in operation for three years, relies on communities for targeting and on local government for registration purposes. Its recent midterm evaluation noted the importance of decentralized structures for information and sensitization, training and monitoring purposes (DGPSN, 2017).

In some countries, vertical management of programmes is more streamlined, as is the case for the Productive Safety Net Programme in Ethiopia, which is coordinated at federal and regional levels and implemented locally through tried and tested administrative structures. At the *kebele* (neighbourhood) level, the PSNP is managed by the Kebele Food Security Task Force (KFSTF)—comprising the Kebele Manager, development agents, social workers, health extension workers and other *kebele* officials and civil society members—under the oversight of the Kebele Cabinet and the Kebele Council. At *woreda* (district) level, a Woreda Food Security Task Force and Food Security Desk determines needs, undertakes planning and coordinates implementation of the PSNP, under the oversight of the Woreda Council through the Woreda Food Security Steering Committee.

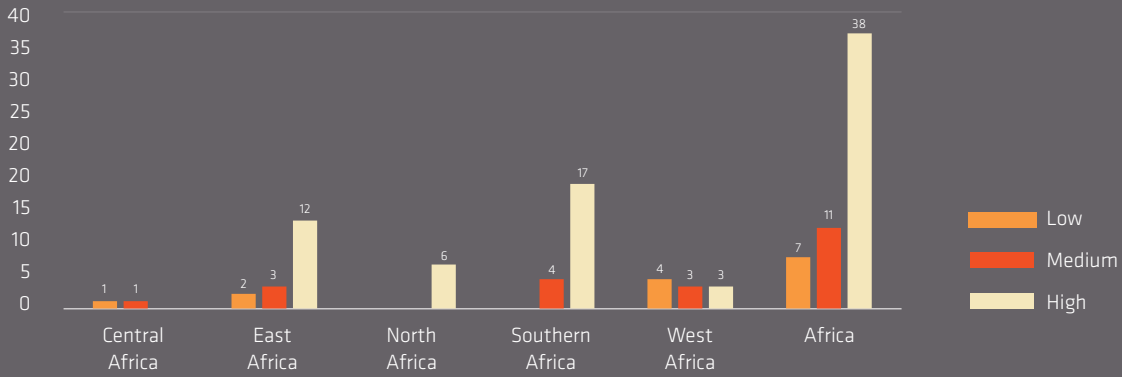
Local structures have sometimes been created as part of territorial based coordination for the implementation of new national social

protection policies. In Burkina Faso, regional social protection units are tasked with collecting data and communicating upwards for social protection policy monitoring and evaluation, and integrating social protection planning in regional development plans (Pino and Confalonieri, 2014). In North Africa the implementation of conditional cash transfers requires further strengthening of institutional coordination at different territorial levels. For example, under the Egyptian Takaful programme, memorandums of understanding (MoUs) have been signed by different ministerial departments to support monitoring and reporting regarding the conditionality. Within the Ministry of Social Solidarity (MoSS), daily management of the programme is the responsibility of the Central Unit for Social Pension (CUSP) of the Social Protection Department. At the local level, MoSS social workers cooperate with NGOs and community development associations as well as with health clinics and schools to enable conditionality monitoring (Devereux, 2016).

In short, local governments perform core activities in the delivery of social protection in Africa. Communities and their representatives often play a central role in customer interface, sometimes an informal and unrecognized one. To support these roles, the responsibilities need to be matched by strengthened capacities and resources including space, equipment, material and staff. We discuss this further in the next section.

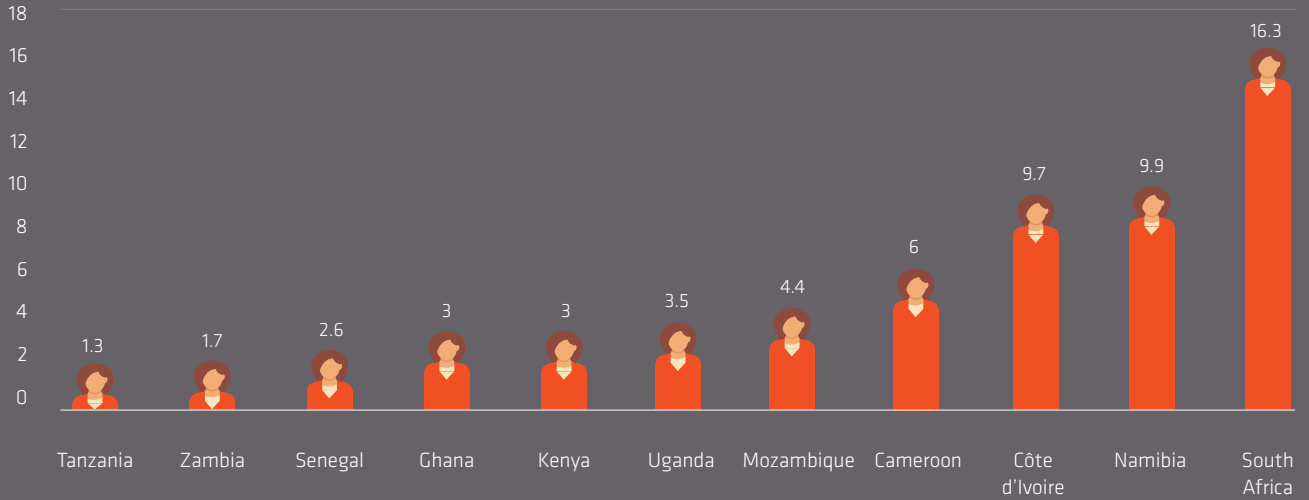


**FIGURE 12.** Number of social assistance programmes with low, medium and high level of centralization—regional variation



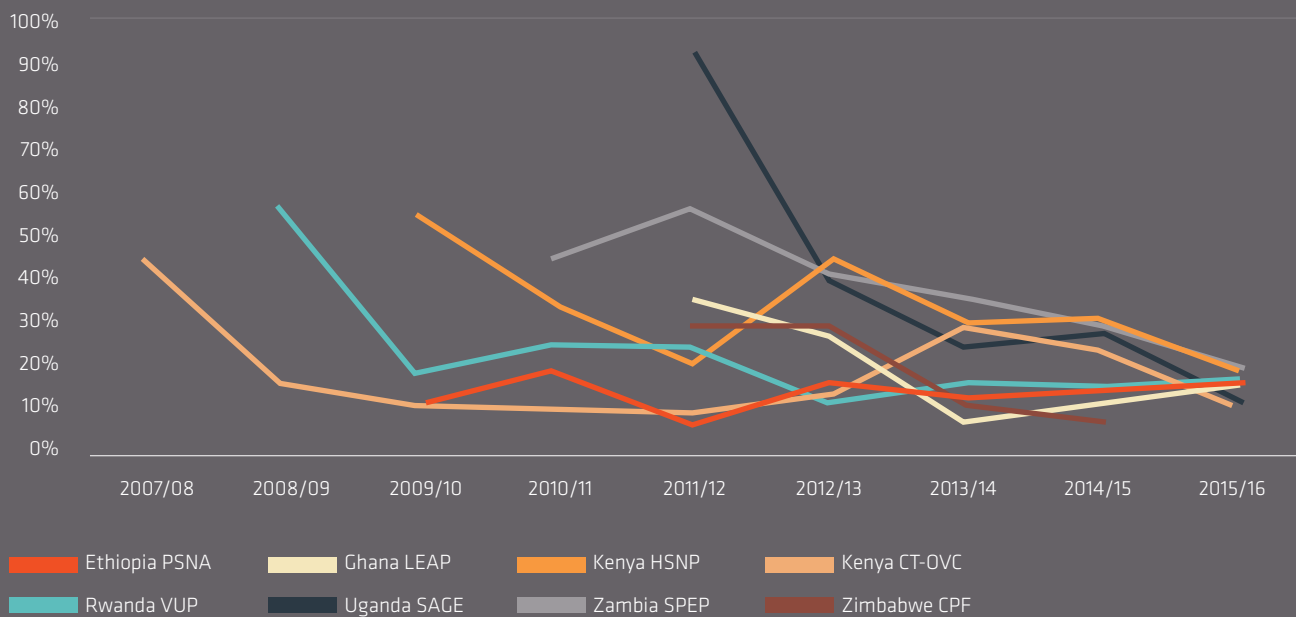
Source: UNDP 2019.

**FIGURE 13.** Government social workers per 100,000 inhabitants



Sources: Canavera, Akeeson and Landis 2014; Global Social Service Workforce Alliance 2015; ILO 2014.

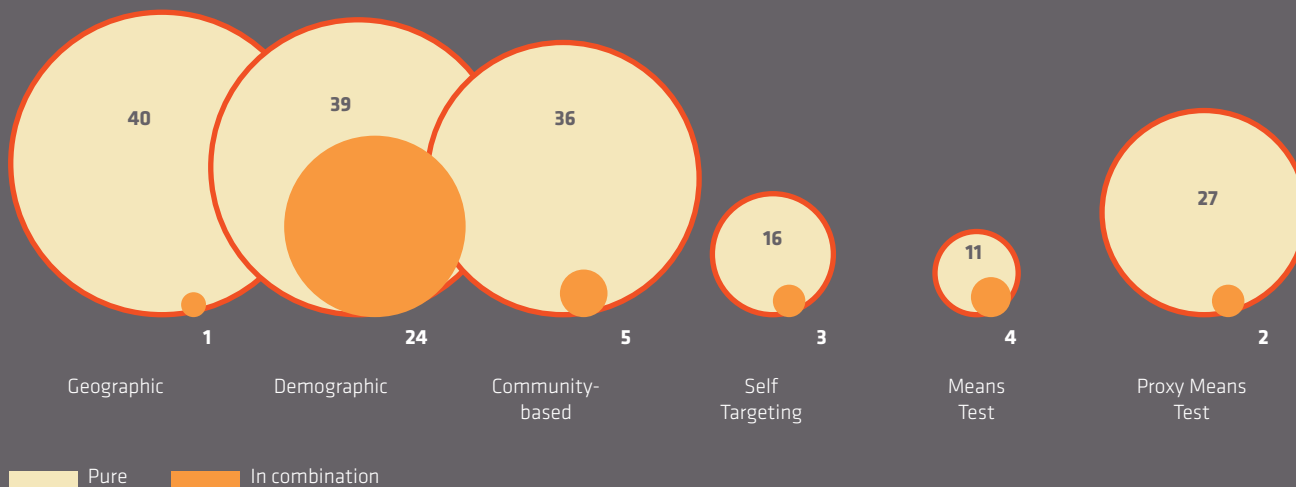
**FIGURE 14.** Administrative costs over time as a proportion of total costs for selected social assistance programmes in Africa



Source: Development Pathways Unpublished.

**FIGURE 15.** Targeting mechanisms for social assistance programmes

Number of programmes



Source: UNDP 2019.

## 5.5 Implementation capacity

The design and implementation of social assistance programmes are influenced by many factors, starting from the objectives of social protection as articulated in a national policy or strategy, but also including the country's political economy context, government capacities, and levels of physical and financial infrastructure development. Here we give a brief overview of implementation capacity focusing on three key dimensions: processes and procedures; staffing; and material resources.

### 5.5.1 Processes and procedures

Recent years have seen unparalleled efforts to build social protection systems within governments across Africa. Often this involves transferring the management of donor-initiated programmes to government, which has implications for processes and procedures. As an example, the Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP) in Kenya established a Program Implementation and Learning Unit (PILU) to manage HSNP 2 with the National Drought Management Authority and to build government capacity to implement HSNP 2 by 2017. Examples of "handing over" interventions include the systematization and extended dissemination/use of operational manuals; adaptation from programme based to government rules, procedures, service charters and standards (e.g. for procurement); and alignment of regulations for staff.

### 5.5.2 Staffing

Shortages of staff, especially at local (village or community) levels of implementation, is a common challenge, as Figure 13 shows. An insufficient social worker workforce leads to them being over-stretched or an excessive reliance on volunteer structures, both of which could undermine the longer-term sustainability of social protection delivery. This results not only from inadequate staff numbers but

also from the fragmentation of the social workforce institutionally, and its uneven geographic spread. For example, Kenya has faced staff shortages at county and sub-county levels, with high levels of vacancies for established positions (Kardan and others, 2017a).<sup>8</sup>

These challenges should be framed within the context of countries facing recruitment freezes for public sector employees. In Mozambique, for example, the need to invest in the workforce is widely acknowledged by government and development partners, but efforts to address the gap stalled following a financial crisis. Moreover, the process of recruitment is centralized and lengthy, as all civil service recruitments require the approval of the Ministry of State Administration.

Even those countries that have a cadre of staff at local level face challenges with technical weakness and high turnover, partly as units are often "staffed not by specialists but by political supporters" (World Bank, 2017). In Malawi, for example, only 16 out of 28 Districts had a sufficiently qualified Director of Planning and Development, while District Councils mostly have politically appointed staff who serve for 3-4 months on average before being transferred elsewhere.

Moreover, deploying an existing workforce of local government staff and social workers to implement social assistance programmes diverts them from their core functions and can undermine government capacity to deliver on other priorities. Staff interviewed in Kenya, for example, reported that their cash transfer responsibilities reduced the time available to carry out other social development tasks (Kardan and others, 2017a). Similar outcomes have been found in Zanzibar (OPM and UNICEF, 2018).

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<sup>8</sup> Capacity assessment of the department noted that "many sub-counties had no Social Development Officer or Children's Officer in place, and overall shortfall of 221 professional staff (or around 33%) at county and sub-county level across the two departments", with local level support provided by volunteer groups and temporary staff (Kardan and others, 2017a).

### 5.5.3 Material resources

The role of material resources in enabling the management of social protection programmes is often under-researched and understated, especially at lower levels of administration. In Kenya, for instance, most counties and sub-counties faced “particular constraints on the availability of office computers, internet modems, and reimbursements for personal IT costs, vehicles and fuel, and funds for the maintenance of equipment” (Kardan and others, 2017a).

Administrative costs per benefit paid decrease over time as systems mature (see Figure 14). However, developing harmonized administration platforms across different programmes requires upfront administration costs. These are often underbudgeted and restricted to investments at central level. Thus, even when governments are fully responsible for the payment of benefits, they may need to rely on operational costs being funded by development partners, pending the full development of their own systems.

## 5.6 Core administrative functions

Transparent, accountable, high-quality public services are fundamental to enhance the delivery of social protection. This section briefly explores the extent to which institutions are adapting their delivery systems to the domestic context, in settings generally characterized by pervasive absolute poverty, low population density and lack of adequate staffing at local levels of administration.

### 5.6.1 Registration

On-demand registration systems (where applicants visit a specific location to register for a programme on an ongoing basis) remain challenging for countries that face low capacity at local levels of implementation. Yet these are the only systems that can guarantee ongoing registration and up-to-date information. On the other hand, census-survey approaches to data collection (by which all households in an area are interviewed at selected

intervals), which are common for poverty-targeted programmes, require recruiting and training of temporary staff. Unfortunately, they are rarely conducted regularly enough—ideally, every 2-3 years—because of their high costs, which risks excluding many eligible people. Countries are tackling trade-offs between the two approaches (Barca, 2017), for instance by involving communities in the registration process in areas with high poverty rates and high poverty density. Inspiring has been South Africa’s attempt to solve its “low take-up” problem (typical of on-demand systems) through Integrated Community Registration Outreach Programs (ICROP), a mobile registration initiative undertaking regular, scheduled visits in rural areas (DSD, SASSA and UNICEF, 2016).

Two further trends are worth noting. Firstly, countries implementing social registries have been centralizing their data collection approach, with different programmes or sectors using the same data. The advantages in terms of reduced duplication, costs, burden on staff and beneficiaries, and increased coordination are clear, yet there are also risks of exclusion from all social sector programmes that require explicit addressing (Barca, 2017). Secondly, an increasing number of countries are gaining increased control over their social spending (elimination of fraud, ghost beneficiaries, double-dipping, etc.), by piggybacking on a foundational national ID system where one is in place (e.g. Kenya, Egypt), or by creating a functional ID system for social protection purposes, often including biometric registration (e.g. Ghana, Namibia, South Africa). While there are large advantages to be reaped, including in terms of increased interoperability, the risks posed in terms of potential exclusion and data privacy will require serious evaluation in coming years (Barca, 2017; ISPA, 2016).

### 5.6.2 Targeting, eligibility and enrolment

Given high poverty rates, small differences between poor households, and tight-knit communities, poverty targeting has been particularly problematic in Africa. It is difficult to draw a clear line between

poor and non-poor, and there are risks that targeting outcomes will not be accepted by individuals and communities. An overview of targeting in social assistance programmes in Africa shows that mechanisms that attempt to assess poverty status (i.e. means tests and proxy means tests) are seldom used alone; instead, demographic targeting (vulnerable categories like children or older persons) is more common (Figure 15). However, determining eligibility for social assistance is most often based on a combination of approaches (e.g. poor households are identified through a proxy means test and this list is validated by the local community within a specific geographical area). In this context, it is worth mentioning two insights that have implications for programming.

First, there is a preference, particularly in East Africa, for involving communities in decision-making to the extent possible. Where this is not explicitly operationalized as community-based targeting (CBT, such as in Mozambique), it takes the form of community validation of preliminary targeting assessments (such as in Lesotho). An interesting example is Rwanda's *Ubudehe* system—a home-grown community wealth ranking instrument that has been used for selection of social assistance beneficiaries. Although *Ubudehe* does not always correlate strongly with poverty, studies have shown that combining it with other targeting methods can reduce the exclusion and inclusion errors.

The second insight is that identifying some individuals or households as eligible for social assistance has implications for social relations—either positive, if social assistance improves social standing in the community (Attah and others, 2016), or negative, if those excluded from social assistance programmes experience jealousy and resentment (MacAuslan and Riemenschneider, 2011).

Ultimately, the transparency, intelligibility and adequacy of cultural and social norms of eligibility criteria are critical for the systems' sustainability and scalability. As an illustration, the targeting system

of the Social Cash Transfer in Zambia, established in 2013 with “high dependency ratio” as one criterion for eligibility, was criticized by communities that rejected the notion that a household with an “able-bodied” head should be eligible even if the household had a high number of dependents. Given the flat income distribution within many rural communities, there was a lot of intra-community resentment about why some people were classified as eligible while others were not. This led to a reformulation of the targeting criteria with the introduction of an “affluence test” that excluded wealthier households (van Ufford and others, 2016).

### 5.6.3 Payment systems

The way social assistance benefits such as cash transfers are paid is important as this can: (a) mediate the impact of a programme (e.g. spending patterns, financial inclusion); (b) affect the cost and risks faced by a programme; (c) affect the burden on recipients (ISPA, 2016).

Payment delays and irregularity are unfortunate features of social protection delivery systems and should be minimized, as they create uncertainty and hardship for recipients who are entitled to receive their payments in full and on time. Payment performance varies across programmes. A recent assessment noted that 86 percent of cash transfer payments were delayed in Rwanda, against 50 percent in Kenya and only 4 percent in Uganda (ICAI, 2017).

Direct distribution of cash is still the main payment method in half of the countries studied followed by bank transfers (8 programmes) (UNDP, 2019). Even when poor populations are offered other options (such as payment into bank accounts), they often express a preference for collecting cash (ILO, 2014). Nonetheless, payment methods other than direct cash delivery are steadily increasing, a well-known case being mobile phone payments in Kenya. The choice between in-house and outsourced payments is not obvious for the African context. In order for governments to manage payments in-house, a



decentralized presence across the country is needed, especially since disbursement of cash transfers by government agencies is most often done manually (TRANSFORM, 2017).

Countries still operating manual systems include Lesotho and Mozambique, but alternative payment modalities are being considered. Sometimes other government structures are involved in delivering cash or food transfers (e.g. post offices in Eswatini, teachers in Zambia). In the case of 17 programmes, countries report the use of hybrid or mixed systems (UNDP, 2019). As payment mechanisms become more complex, using different modalities rather than a single channel, contracting out these processes to the private sector is increasing.

On the other hand, where the market for payment providers is not yet well developed, it can be complex and time-consuming for governments to undertake a successful public procurement to outsource payments. In Mozambique, for example, there is an awareness that the current manual payment system is unsustainable (a large percentage of staff time is spent on this and payments are enabled via unauthenticated fingerprints, with high potential for fraud), yet tendering has been unsuccessful despite several attempts since 2013. To add to this, contracting external providers raises the cost of delivering payments and introduces the risk of misuse of data and monopoly pricing in the medium term. Even in South Africa, a country with highly sophisticated financial systems and qualified staff, operational risks have recently been experienced over finding suitable payment providers for social grants.

Of course, the advantages of bringing in the private sector are multiple, not least enabling programmes to take advantage of external providers' expertise and leapfrog technology (e.g. using cell-phones rather than landlines) instead of creating parallel and possibly inferior structures. Experience has shown the importance of developing contractual relationships that clearly establish financial terms (standard price per transaction, additional fees,

etc.), specific services needed, required service standards and reporting, infrastructure to be used and maintained, intellectual property, security and privacy, and penalties for non-compliance (TRANSFORM, 2017). Another value of underlying administrative systems has also become apparent: e-payments will only deliver to their full potential where a management information system (MIS) provides updated payment lists that can be used for electronic reconciliation, as Kenya's Single Registry is able to do across social assistance programmes. As its good record of timely payments shows, Uganda has been particularly successful in developing in-house capacity to supervise payment providers (ICAI, 2017).

#### 5.6.4 Case management and referrals systems

Given that social assistance's ultimate role is to address not only income poverty but also its multidimensional manifestations, there is a strong case for adequate case management, linkage and referral mechanisms. Whether labelled as "cash plus" or "complementary programming", many countries have been experimenting with cross-sector programming and service delivery, including preventative and responsive social welfare services. As categorized by Roelen and others (2017), these can either be provided as integral programme components (e.g. as additional benefits or in-kind transfers, information/ sensitization/ behaviour change communication (BCC), or psychosocial support) or as linkage to external support (providing or facilitating access to other service). Countries pioneering these approaches include Ghana, Mauritius, Zimbabwe, South Africa and Malawi.

Ghana provides a particularly useful case study of how such an approach can be institutionalized over time, testifying to how complementary services can be facilitated across institutions when they share objectives or have overlapping mandates. The LEAP programme and the wider National Social Protection Policy explicitly promote an "integrated social development platform", first set in motion in 2010 when the Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare

signed a MoU with the Ministry of Health to provide LEAP beneficiaries with free access to National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) cards. However, the first five years of this agreement saw little effort to put policy into practice. Following new evidence on the limited impact of LEAP due to its small transfer size and its limited use to pay NHIS premiums, a strong political push was made. To help build broad-based consensus Regional and District Social Welfare Officers were invited to participate in meetings between LEAP and the NHIS authority, with similar efforts at local level. Since then, enrolments have increased dramatically, and the two institutions have been working side by side to achieve their common objective, with strong Government endorsement (Roelen and others, 2017).

Two broad factors of success across countries are worth mentioning. The first is access to vital registration – especially birth certificates and identity documents. “Registering children at birth is the first step in securing recognition before the law and safeguarding individual rights and access to justice and social services” (UN, SDG 16). However, recent assessments in 17 African countries show that only 35 percent of births are registered and only 29 percent of citizens have a national ID, with wide variations across countries (Clark, 2017). The second factor is “a functioning MIS” (Roelen and others, 2017). For example, in Zimbabwe, the Harmonized Social Cash Transfer (HSCT) programme is designed to enhance access to social services for all members of households receiving social cash transfers. This is achieved via Child Protection Committees at local level and a digitalized Case Management system within the programme’s MIS, to ensure appropriate follow-up and identification of gaps in service provision for planning purposes.







## 5.7 Conclusions

Social assistance is becoming steadily institutionalized in Africa. An increasing number of programmes have now reached full national coverage and domestic funding has increased, but many challenges remain. Following Martinez's (2017) typology for institutionalizing social assistance, the following general trends can be identified:

Over the past decade, many countries in Africa have moved from delivering small and fragmented social assistance projects to implementing permanent social assistance programmes, with a trajectory towards offering social assistance at scale. These new programmes were initially backed by social protection objectives within poverty reduction strategies and national development plans. Yet, since the early 2000s, many countries have developed tailored national social protection strategies, which include steps to be taken towards institutional coordination. A few countries are now articulating social protection investment plans with strategic medium-term frameworks to ensure the strategies are progressively backed by domestic resources. Some countries have implemented the building blocks of their social protection programmes independently from development partners (Lesotho, Namibia) but others (Zimbabwe, Malawi) are facing difficulties in matching partners' contributions with domestic funding and remain dependent on development partners for external expertise and operational support (see Chapter 6).

By testing and learning from different approaches, countries in Africa are domesticating good practices in the determination of eligibility and benefit determination rules. Politicians are sensitive to the call for cultural and socially sensitive regulations and processes. The scaling up of programmes has also highlighted the need to ensure that those rules remain stable, simple, easy to understand, equitable and transparent.

The critical importance of social protection in national development has prompted the creation

of interministerial coordination bodies overseeing policy that cuts across different departments. However, coordination in delivery is still constrained by the lack of resources devoted to implementation, which also limits ownership of the administrative solutions under which programmes operate. The level of administrative integration is still limited and subject to inter-institutional in-fighting, despite moves to create central government departments. While technical solutions—such as integrated beneficiary registries and social registries—can play a role in addressing these challenges, they must be underpinned by wider efforts to improve coordination.

There has been a move over the last decade for development partners to work more closely with or even within government systems. There are also good examples where they support programmes which were started by government, as in Mozambique, where government ownership was already solid. Although development partners take a longer-term approach to capacity-building in principle, in practice there is often pressure on governments to speed up policy development and implementation to reflect development partners' timing and agendas. There are also risks of overloading the scope of reforms that governments can absorb, justifying the need for external capacity and alternative administrative systems, thereby limiting the ownership of intended reforms.

A pressing issue remains the lack of a “footprint” of social protection administrations: an inadequate social service workforce, generally spread thinly across the country and overburdened by competing institutional obligations. Social protection requires a solid “customer interface” to address the holistic needs of vulnerable people. The ultimate objectives of social cohesion and good governance can only be achieved through a well-equipped and empowered social sectors workforce.

While the evidence base has grown, thanks to a rising number of impact evaluations of social assistance

programmes, there are insufficient continuing monitoring and evaluation systems in place. Most programme evaluations are commissioned by development partners, to demonstrate the effective use of their development assistance and to generate learning for improved impacts. Governments are more concerned with efficient delivery of services, including social assistance to poor and vulnerable citizens. For this, sound monitoring systems are needed, but in many countries the availability of even basic administrative data is still limited (Kardan and others, 2017a). A defining moment in the transition from NGO-led pilots to government led programmes in Zambia was the commissioning of research by the

Government itself instead of development partners, as it empowered the Government to be the agency and advocate for the change in the decisive policy forums (van Ufford and others, 2016). While the provision of quantitative evidence on the impact of existing programmes has been critical for domestic advocacy purposes across the region (helping to respond to the questions: does it work? what works best?) there is now a need to answer another set of fundamental operational questions (e.g. how can it work better?). For this, mixed methods research on institutional and administrative delivery systems, ideally commissioned by governments, should support further learning and adaptation.







Chapter 6

FINANCING  
SOCIAL  
ASSIST  
ANCE

### 6.1 Introduction

Social assistance programmes have spread across the African continent in the past two decades, but in some cases have been running much longer. In countries that adopted social assistance relatively early, programmes have become institutionalized and are financed with domestically sourced revenue, while in relatively new country adopters social assistance programmes are often still at a pilot stage and are mostly financed by development partners. Reaching all eligible participants and delivering adequate transfers are the main issues for institutionalized social assistance programmes. Recent developments in national social policy frameworks in new adopters demonstrate the resolve to move towards institutionalizing social assistance. The question becomes, how will social assistance be financed to expand reach and adequacy in early adopters, and to be institutionalized in new adopters?

To answer this question, the chapter covers five things. First, it provides a broad overview of tax and non-tax revenue and public spending in Africa, revealing that most governments work with budget deficits so financing new public expenditure such as social assistance is a challenge. Next, the analysis focuses on how much countries spend on social assistance programmes. Third, given that resources are limited and must be allocated among a number of competing priorities, the chapter discusses how fiscal space might be increased in Africa by reforming tax administrations. Fourth, several strategies are presented for mobilizing and allocating additional resources for financing social assistance. The chapter ends by describing remaining challenges, which include a narrow tax base due to the large informal

economy in Africa, instability of natural resource prices, and disincentives to mobilize domestic revenues attributed to external financing.

### 6.2 Public revenue and expenditure

#### 6.2.1 Public revenue

More revenue supporting government expenditure, including for social assistance, originates from tax rather than non-tax sources. The major tax revenue categories in order of importance, based on available data for 16 African countries as of 2015, are VAT, taxes on specific goods and services, personal income tax, and corporate income tax. Of the countries with information, Togo recorded the maximum VAT revenue as a percent of total tax revenue (close to 45 percent) and Tunisia recorded the minimum (6 percent), yet VAT revenue as a percentage of GDP in Tunisia is three-quarters that of Togo. Côte d'Ivoire recorded the lowest personal income tax as a percent of total tax revenue (0.3 percent) while South Africa had the highest (33.4 percent) (OECD, ATAF and AUC, 2017).

The average tax-to-GDP ratio in Africa in 2015 was 17.8 percent, far below that of the OECD, at 34 percent. Tax-to-GDP varied widely between countries, ranging from a minimum of 1.5 percent in Nigeria to a maximum of 48.5 percent in Lesotho. Figure 16 shows that richer countries collect higher levels of revenue as a share of GDP.

Resource-rich countries, defined as those with export revenues of either oil or minerals above 20 percent of GDP,<sup>9</sup> have higher tax-to-GDP ratios, averaging 20.6 percent, compared with non-resource rich countries, averaging 16.9 percent.

Another difference in the source of revenue from taxes between resource-rich and non-resource-rich countries is that almost all government general revenue in the 27 resource-rich countries with comparable data comes from taxes, whereas in the 14 non-resource-rich countries with data, only 72 percent of government general revenue comes from taxes.

On average, 11 percent of government revenue originates from non-tax revenues, which vary from country to country within Africa. Three distinct patterns are apparent. One: Kenya, Tunisia and South Africa receive a majority of their non-tax revenues from property income, particularly rents and royalties and interest and dividends. Two: the DRC, Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Togo and Uganda receive a majority of their non-tax revenues in the form of grants. Three: Cabo Verde, Ghana, Mauritius and Morocco receive most of their non-tax revenue from sales of goods and services.

Non-tax revenues typically show more annual variation than tax revenues, and therefore are not a stable source of revenue for most states. Non-tax revenue from social contributions (e.g. pensions and social security) contributes less than other non-tax revenues (e.g. rents and royalties) to the non-tax revenues in most African countries because they are related to the level of formal sector employment. While social contributions are widely used as a revenue source in high-income countries, the potential to generate much revenue from this source is very limited in Africa, especially in countries with high levels of informal employment.

The level of government revenue is also influenced by the types of tax that a government chooses to levy and the rate of each tax levied. In countries with a low GNI per capita (below the average for Africa), indirect taxes account for nearly half (46 percent on average) of tax revenue whereas in African countries with mid to high GNI per capita, the share of indirect taxes is just over a quarter (about 28 percent). In general, there is greater reliance on indirect (as opposed to direct) taxes in low-income countries than in high-income countries, and in non-resource-rich countries as compared to resource-rich countries. This could be related to the lower levels of formal sector employment in low-income countries and non-resource rich countries. While the informal sector is a major contributor to GDP in many countries (Medina, Jonelis and Cangul, 2017) enforcing payment of income taxes and social contributions (i.e. direct taxes) on workers outside formal employment is challenging, regressive and administratively costly.

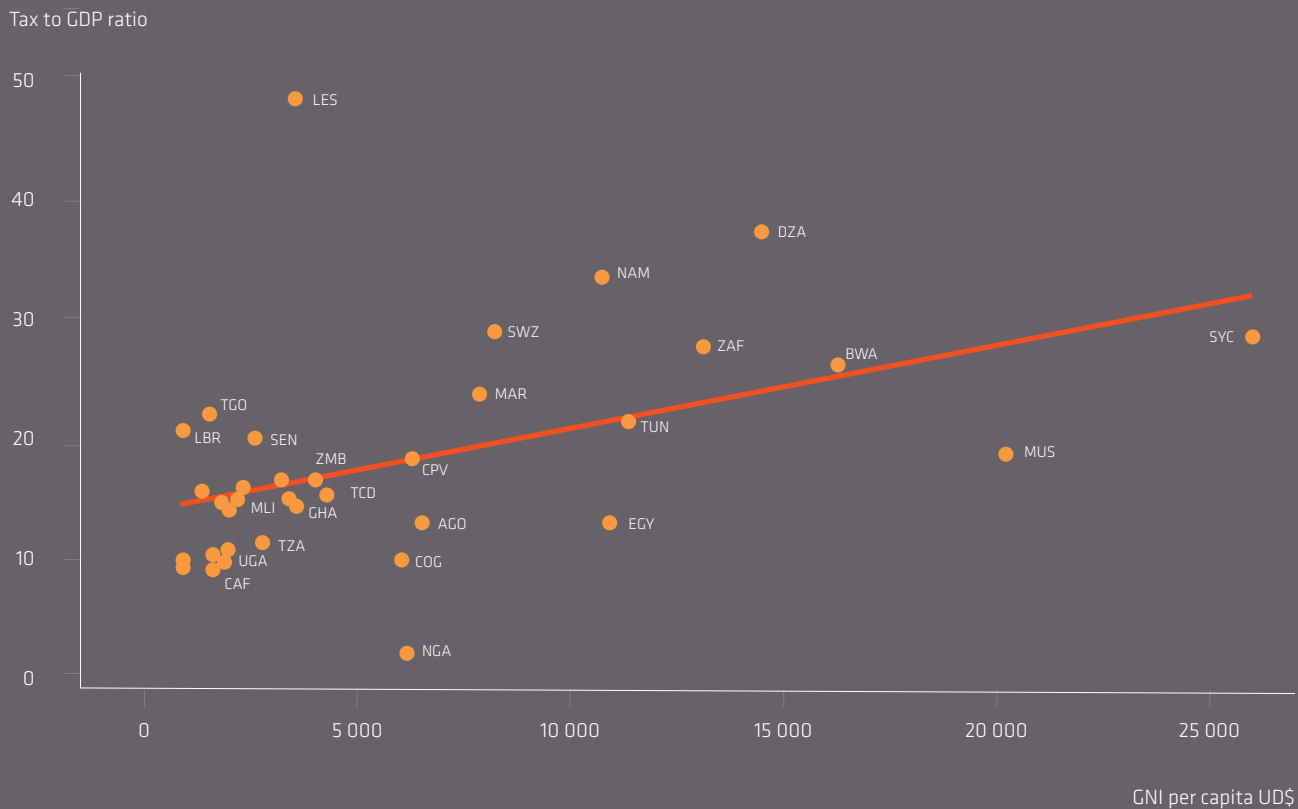
#### 6.2.2 Public expenditure

Public expenditure is commonly presented as a percentage of GDP (see Annex C.1). The average public expenditure of the 36 countries listed in Annex C.1 was 28.5 percent of GDP in 2012, with Guinea-Bissau having the lowest (less than 2 percent) and Lesotho having the highest (more than 62 percent). Six countries spend less than 20 percent of GDP; 14 countries spend between 21 and 30 percent of GDP; and 13 countries spend more than 31 percent of GDP.

The extent to which the total resources available can be reallocated depends on economic and political constraints, and thus varies widely between countries. A level of 20-25 percent of GDP is suggested as a realizable public expenditure ratio in developing countries (UNDP, 1991).

<sup>9</sup> See Annex C.3 for a list of resource-rich and resource-poor African countries, and oil exporters and importers.

**FIGURE 16.** Tax-to-GDP ratios and Gross National Income (GNI) per capita in African countries with information, 2015<sup>10</sup>



Source: UNDP 2019.

<sup>10</sup> AGO (Angola); BWA (Botswana); CAF (Central African Republic); COG (Congo); CPV (Cabo Verde); DZA (Algeria); EGY (Egypt); GHA (Ghana); LBR (Liberia); MAR (Morocco); MLI (Mali); MUS (Mauritius); NAM (Namibia); NGA (Nigeria); SEN (Senegal); SWZ (Eswatini); SYC (Seychelles); TCD (Chad); TGO (Togo); TUN (Tunisia); TZA (Tanzania); UGA (Uganda); ZAF (South Africa); ZMB (Zambia).  
Source for abbreviations: <https://www.worldatlas.com/aatlas/ctycodes.htm>.





Almost all countries have increased their public spending as a percent of GDP since 2000, as shown in Annex C.1 for 36 countries in Africa for which data are available, with the average rising from 24.5 percent in 2000 to 27.4 percent in 2012. Although more than half (21 countries) have a public expenditure ratio above 25 percent, there is substantial cross-country heterogeneity. North Africa and Southern Africa are high spenders with averages in 2012 above 30 percent.

Usually, governments spend more resources in high-income countries than in low-income countries, both in per capita terms and as a share of their national incomes. However, no such trend is discernible in Africa. Though the GDP per capita of Mauritius is 17 times that of Malawi, both countries have similar public expenditure ratios. On the other hand, Lesotho and Côte d'Ivoire have almost the same GDP per capita, but the public expenditure ratio in Lesotho is more than 2.5 times that of Côte d'Ivoire.

The top five headings of expenditure in African government budgets vary from one country to another with the exception of spending on defence, education and health, which rank highly in most countries. In East Africa, Uganda's highest spending in 2016 was on national roads maintenance and construction, defence, public services, parliament and district road maintenance. In Southern Africa, Botswana's top five expenditures were on education, economic services, general public services, health, and defence. In West Africa, Nigeria's top five spending headings in the same year were on the interior ministry, special intervention programmes, power, works and housing, defence and education and Liberia's top five were on public administration, security rule of law, education, infrastructure and basic services and health. Social assistance never ranks in the top five.

### 6.2.3 Public revenue-expenditure gap and fiscal options

Figure 17 shows total revenue and grants, total expenditure and net lending and the overall balance for 27 African countries. Public expenditure exceeded

revenue and grants in almost all these countries in 2014. Given the negative overall fiscal balance that African governments currently face, a top priority must be to increase overall domestic revenue to finance public expenditures in general and social assistance in particular.

If domestic revenues cannot be increased in the short term, the other fiscal options for governments are best conveyed by the fiscal space diamond (IBRD and IDA, 2007), which assesses macro-fiscal options for governments to raise finance. There are four pillars of financing: official development assistance (ODA) through grants and debt relief; domestic and external borrowing; and reprioritization of expenditures. In other words, if revenues cannot be raised the options are either deficit financing through borrowing locally or externally, improving tax administration or tax policy reforms, or making public expenditures more efficient. Section 6.4 below expands on these options. However, it must be noted that decisions on financing and spending are inherently political and entail complex decision-making processes. Political calculations, civil servant preferences, and lobbying on behalf of constituencies and special interest groups all play a role in determining how much public money will ultimately be allocated to social assistance.

### 6.3 Social assistance spending

A high level of public spending does not guarantee high social assistance spending, but the public sector expenditure ratio does indicate the volume of resources that the government can mobilize and thus offers a baseline for discussing the scope for allocation of resources to social assistance. Spending on social assistance is nested within larger decisions on the overall allocation of resources, available from the discretionary funds left after making non-discretionary payments such as debt-servicing.

While only six out of 36 countries had a public expenditure to GDP ratio of less than 20 percent in 2012 (Annex C.1), the situation with respect to social

assistance is much less favourable. There is a wide variation among the 37 countries for which data are available, which spend in the range of 0.02 to 5.55 percent of GDP on social assistance, as shown in Figure 18. Countries that have built social assistance institutions over time are likely to have higher social assistance spending to GDP ratios. Most of these countries are found in Southern Africa and include Lesotho, Namibia and South Africa. The only other country that spends more than 3 percent of GDP on social assistance is Mauritius in East Africa.

Although the oldest programmes are typically found in North and Southern Africa, countries in North Africa spend on average less than 1 percent of GDP on social assistance, while countries in Southern Africa spend on average about 2 percent of GDP. This can be explained by differing configurations of welfare institutions and programmes. In North Africa, social protection is dominated by food and energy subsidies (which are not generally classified as social assistance) and social insurance. In Southern Africa, social protection is dominated by social assistance programmes. Countries in other geographic regions of Africa, with the exception of Mauritius and Seychelles, are relatively new adopters of social assistance and their average spending on social assistance is generally less than 1 percent of GDP.

### 6.3.1 Donor and domestic financing of social assistance

The amount committed to each poor person per year is not much, even in countries such as Ethiopia and Uganda, where social assistance is largely financed by bilateral aid based on a MoU between donors and governments. In 2012/13, Uganda and Ethiopia spent only US\$8.53 and US\$14.07 per poor person respectively. If Uganda is contrasted with Mozambique, which fully finances its social assistance programmes (with donors only financing an extension in the number of beneficiaries), the difference in

the amount spent per poor person is negligible. This suggests that if there is a strong political commitment to social assistance programmes, they can be financed from domestic resources.

A closer look at how social assistance programmes were financed in 2010–2015 is presented in Table 2, where a comparison is made between domestic and donor financing for 37 social assistance programmes for which information on donor and public spending is available. Because data are not available for a single calendar or financial year, expenditure figures have been collected over five years and expressed in 2011 purchasing power parity US dollars.

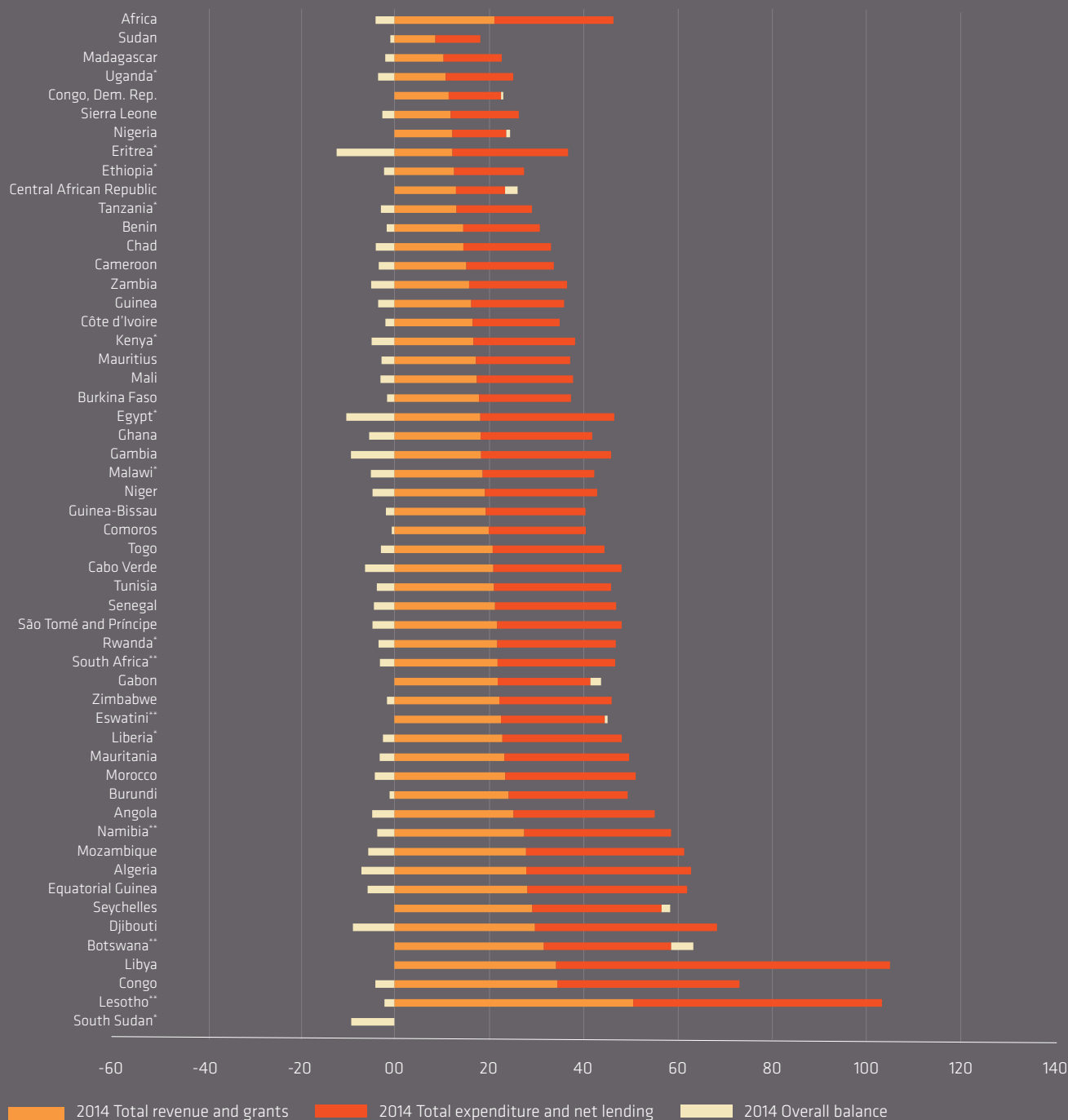
Both the donor and domestically sourced funding for social assistance programmes exhibit a wide range, running from a few thousand dollars to hundreds of millions in the case of donor financing and billions in the case of domestic financing. The programmes that attracted the minimum and maximum spending by donors were the Hunger Safety Net Programme in Kenya and the Productive Safety Net Programme in Ethiopia, respectively. The South African Older Person's Grant attracted the maximum spending from domestic sources while the Tigray Social Cash Transfer in Ethiopia attracted the least domestic spending.<sup>11</sup>

In Figure 19, the percentage contribution to social cash transfers by national governments in seven African countries is shown to be increasing relative to development partners' contributions. In the period 2013 to 2015, the government's contribution to cash transfers in Zambia more than tripled, while government contributions in Rwanda, Kenya and Ghana more than doubled. Donor financing still dominates in Ethiopia, Tanzania and Uganda, although spending commitments from these governments show a willingness to contribute more in future. In Rwanda and Zambia, more than half of total spending on cash transfer programmes since 2014-15 comes from government.

<sup>11</sup> An independent two sample t-test with unequal variances provides evidence that domestic financing is statistically significantly greater than donor financing (p value = 0.019).



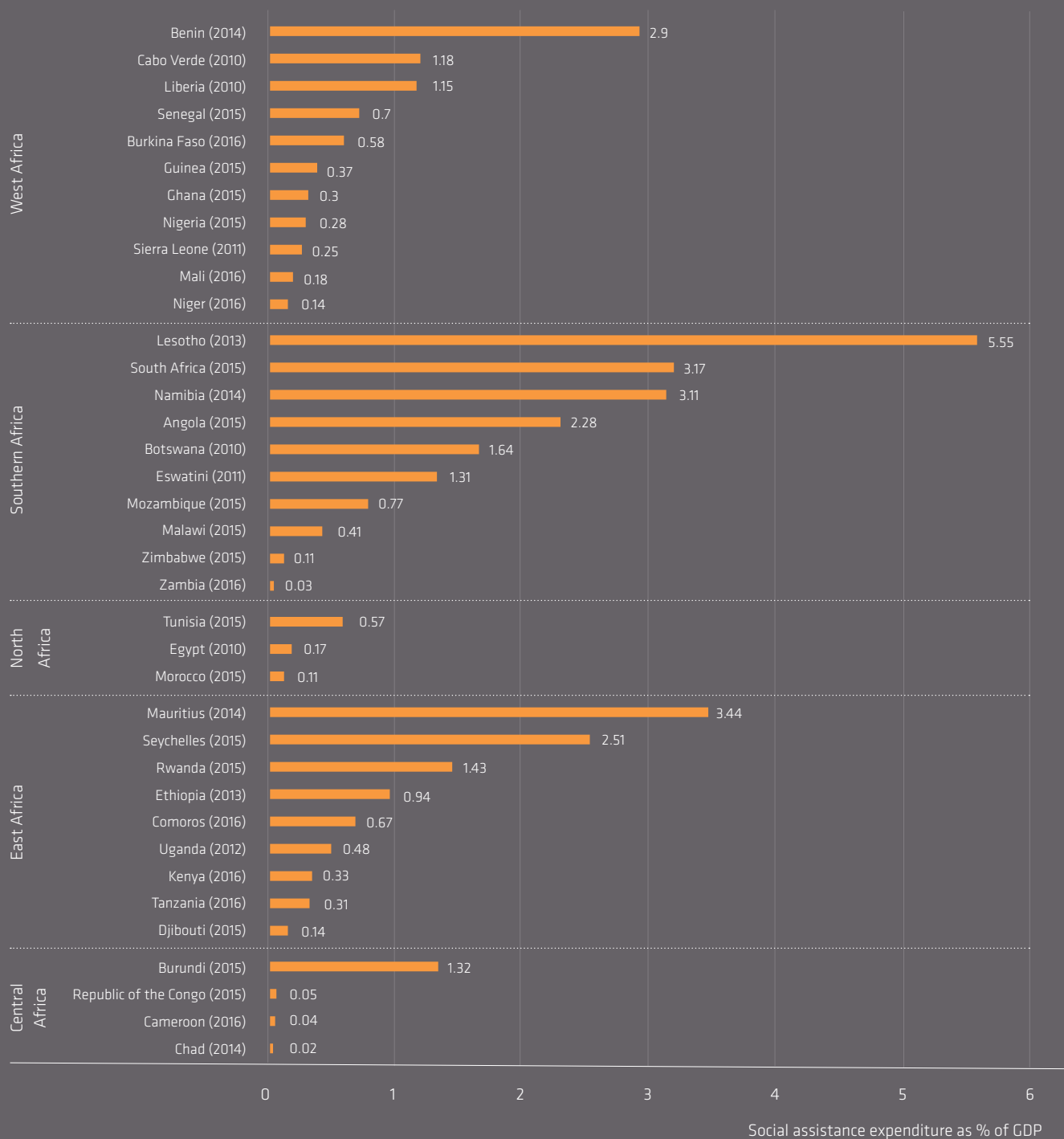
**FIGURE 17.** Revenue-expenditure gap in Africa, 2014



Source: AfDB, OECD and UNDP 2016.

Note: \*Fiscal year July (n-1)/June (n) and \*\*Fiscal year April (n-1)/ March (n) [South African fiscal year is April (n)/ March (n+1)]. All figures are as percentage of GDP.

**FIGURE 18.** Social assistance expenditure (as % of GDP)



Source: UNDP 2019.

Note: Data are derived from the World Bank's *Atlas of Social Protection Indicators of Resilience and Equity*, by subtracting all emergency spending from the total safety net expenditures.





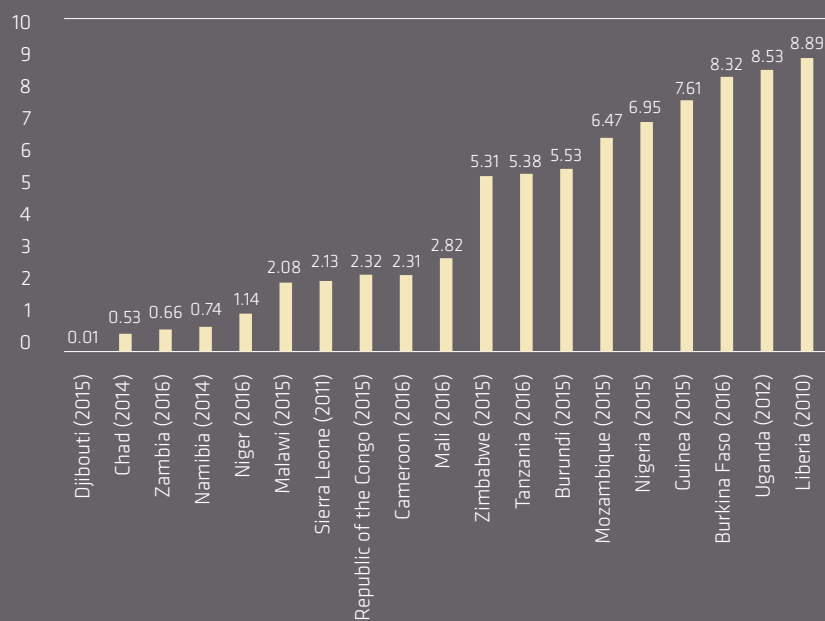
**BOX 13.** Social assistance expenditure per poor person

In this box, an experimental indicator of social assistance expenditure per poor person is used to assess spending on social assistance in Africa. The poverty headcount rate is accessed from the World Bank, which uses a poverty line of purchasing power parity US\$1.9 per day. It should be noted that the amount of social assistance per poor person per year includes implementation costs and assumes perfect targeting – i.e. that social assistance programmes correctly identify the population in poverty.

Note: Mauritius and Seychelles are outliers because they have small populations with relatively few poor people (poverty head count of 0.5% for Mauritius as at 2014 and 1.1% for Seychelles as at 2015), their GDPs are large and some of their social assistance programmes are universal.

Source: UNDP 2019.

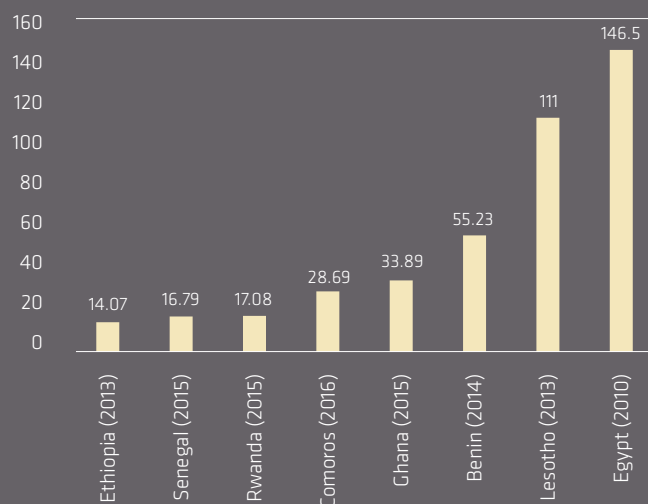
#### Low spenders



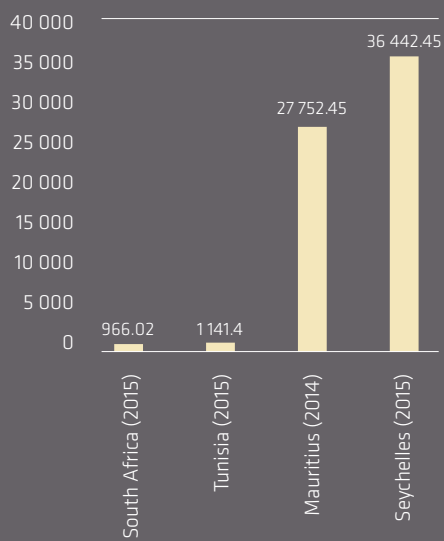




### Intermediate spenders

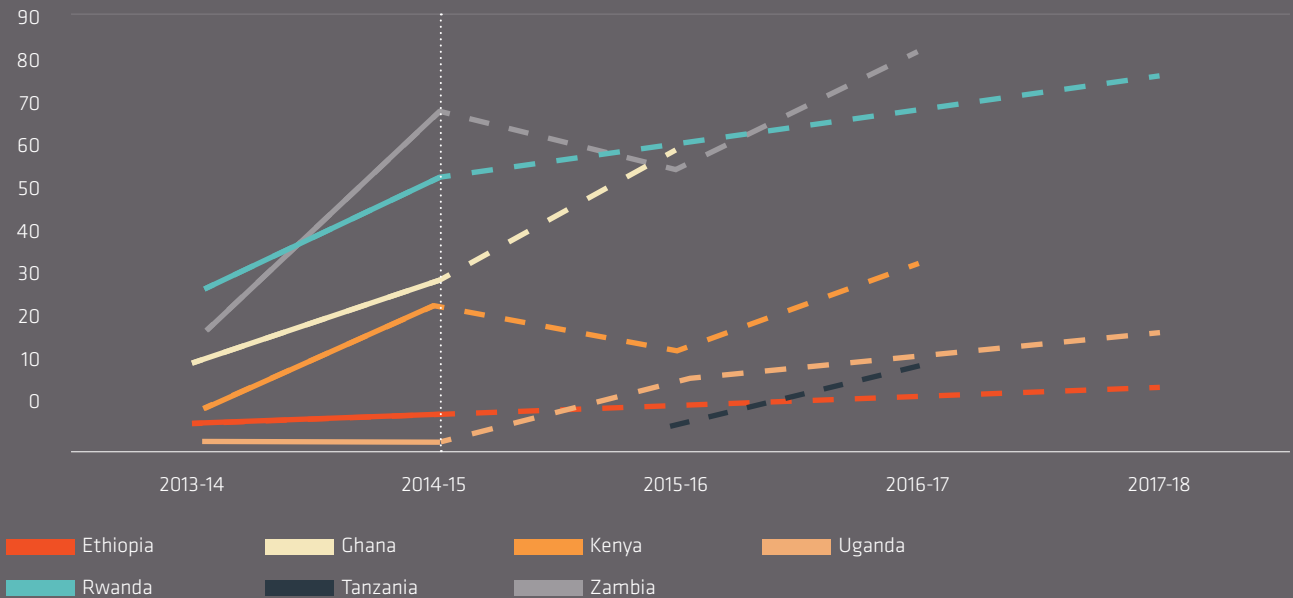


### High spenders



**FIGURE 19.** National governments' percentage contribution to cash transfer programmes

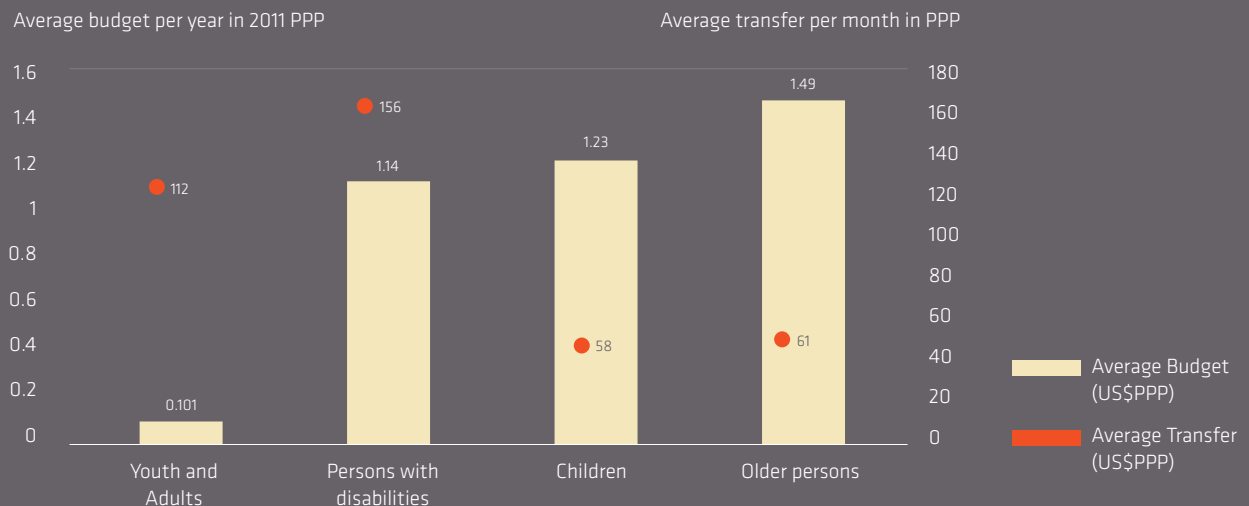
Percentage of total programme cost



Source: ICAI 2017.

Note: Solid lines represent actual expenditure data. Dashed lines represent spending commitments. Gaps indicate data unavailability.

**FIGURE 20.** Average budget and transfer amount per target group



Source: UNDP 2019.

Note: Data from the social assistance programme budgets are collected over the period 2010-2015. There were eight programmes with budget data targeting youth and adults; seven targeting older persons; and three targeting persons with disabilities.





**TABLE 2.** Donor versus domestic spending in social assistance programmes (2010-2015)

Source of funding	No. of social assistance programmes	Average spending in US\$ (2011 PPP) per year	Minimum spending in US\$ (2011 PPP)	Maximum spending in US\$ (2011 PPP)
Donor	16	51,500,000	95,000	667,000,000
Domestic	21	1,400,000,000	152,000	8,810,000,000

Source: UNDP 2019.

Note: Minimum and maximum spending is the least and most amount of expenditure on a programme in a given year, respectively.

### 6.3.2 Social assistance expenditure by target group

As seen earlier in this report, social cash transfers in Africa mainly target children, older persons and persons with disabilities, while public works target the working population, that is, youth and adults. Figure 20 shows that budgets per financial or calendar year for older persons are generally higher than those for children, despite the fact that programmes targeting children have more than twice the average number of participants. The working-age population attracts the smallest amount of spending, probably because they are expected to fend for themselves without government assistance. The fact that social assistance for adults tends to come in the form of public works signals the reluctance of African governments to provide free cash transfers to individuals who are able to work.

Although the total amount budgeted for youth and adults through public works programmes in Africa is far less than that budgeted for the other target groups, the average amount (US\$112) actually paid to youth and adults per person per month is, on average, twice that of transfers to children (US\$58) and to older persons (US\$61). This can be explained by the fact that social cash transfers tend to be relatively small, but employment on public works projects must be remunerated at a rate close to the local market wage for unskilled labour—usually slightly below, so as not to distort labour markets or create dependency on public works employment.

### 6.4 Expanding fiscal space for social assistance in Africa

We have established that revenue for public spending in Africa is typically sourced from VAT (the largest contributor), taxes on specific goods and services, personal income tax and corporate income tax (the smallest contributor). The sectors prioritized most in public spending are defence, education and health. The public revenue-expenditure gap is negative for almost all African countries with available data. These findings have implications for increasing the fiscal space for public spending in general and for social assistance in particular.

First, it is clear that social assistance programmes have a relatively low budgetary priority in most countries in Africa. Second, because VAT is a major source of public revenue and because the poor tend to spend a higher share of their income on basic commodities, it can be concluded that the poor contribute to the fiscal space in Africa even if they do not pay personal income tax. It also means that the major tax is inherently regressive. This provides a strong justification for giving social assistance higher priority in public spending in Africa. Third, however, fiscal resources are limited. Governments in Africa are constrained in their absolute levels of spending by the size of their national economies, their ability to raise funds from internal and external sources, and non-discretionary expenditure obligations in the form of debt service payments. All the same, more resources are needed, especially if spending on lower priority sectors such as social assistance is to increase to levels that begin to realize the right to social protection for all.

The challenge of creating fiscal space has two facets. On the one hand, a government's ability to generate new internal or external resources on a sustainable basis, by modifying either the source or the level of funding, is invariably limited in the short run. On the other hand, available resources must be allocated in the most efficient way possible to achieve national goals. In the long run, sustained economic growth is key to strengthening the capacity of governments to finance social sector spending, not only education and health but also social assistance.

Considerations of fiscal space generally originate from a concern for generating additional revenue without threatening government solvency. In principle, there are two main ways of creating adequate fiscal space for financing social assistance programmes: either by mobilizing additional resources, or by making budgetary reallocations. Each is associated with a set of strategies that are discussed later in this section. But first, the discussion focuses on tax capacity, tax effort and the marginal cost of public funds in Africa.



#### 6.4.1 Improving tax administration to expand fiscal space

The Addis Ababa Action Agenda of July 2015 advocates for governments to raise more funds by strengthening domestic revenue mobilization through improved tax policy and more efficient tax administration. Given that taxes are by far the main source of public revenue in Africa, contributing 89 percent on average to national budgets, it is imperative to have an understanding first of the extent to which tax capacity matches actual tax collection. Tax capacity refers to the predicted tax-to-GDP ratio that can be estimated empirically, whereas tax effort is the ratio between the share of the actual tax collection in GDP and the taxable capacity (Le, Moreno-Dodson and Bayraktar, 2012). A tax effort that is too low signals that fiscal space for social assistance, and public expenditure in general, can be improved either by raising tax rates or by extending taxes to the untaxed.

Raising tax rates is rarely popular. Yet this could be a policy reform worth pursuing if the disincentive effects from a tax increase to the taxpayer and the administrative costs of tax collection are low. This is referred to in the literature as the marginal cost of public funds (MCPF) (Auriol and Warlters, 2012), which is essentially the change in social welfare associated with raising an additional unit of tax revenue from a particular type of tax. It is commonly reported as the cost of collecting US\$1 in a country. For example, in Table 3 collecting US\$1 through consumption taxes in Benin costs an additional 15 US cents, whereas collecting the same amount through labour taxes adds US\$1.55 in administrative costs and disincentive effects. This means that for those taxes whose MCPF is high, it would not make sense to raise tax rates, but instead efforts should be directed at improving tax administration without increasing tax rates.

In Table 3 a country is classified as a low-collection country if its actual tax collection is less than the median (18.31 percent) of the tax-to-GDP ratio in the sample used by Le, Moreno-Dodson and Bayraktar (2012). A country is regarded as a high-collection

country if its actual tax collection is more than 18.31 percent. Similarly, a country is regarded as a high-effort country if its tax effort index is more than 1, and a low-effort country if its tax effort index is less than 1. The last two columns of Table 3 give the MCPF for two key instruments—domestic sales taxes and personal income taxes—based on the Auriol and Warlters (2012) estimates.

None of the African countries in Table 3 are classified as high-collection-low-effort countries. Six of the countries are classified as low-collection-low-effort countries. Since their actual tax collection is below their respective tax capacity, these countries have the potential to improve their tax administration and realize significant improvement in their fiscal space by concentrating on revenue enhancement. Part of the blueprint for how to embark on revenue enhancement is provided by studying the MCPF for specific tax instruments such as VAT and personal income tax, in the last two columns of Table 3. For this group of countries classified as low-collection-low-effort, domestic sales tax has low MCPF, while personal income tax has high MCPF. To improve their tax administration, these countries can therefore raise domestic sales tax rates rather than personal income tax. On the other hand, as already stated, taxing food consumption is regressive and consequently it is imperative that public expenditure directed at the poor is at the forefront of expenditure prioritization in these countries.

Another six countries in Table 3 are classified as high-collection-high-effort. For each country in this group, the actual collection of tax is above their taxable capacity. They cannot afford to raise taxes further as this may lead to serious unintended economic consequences. Improvements in tax administration in these countries should aim at reducing tax distortions, simplifying administration systems and procedures and improving the business climate. African states can foster total factor productivity gains through differentiated tax treatments on businesses depending on their size, asset type and source of financing and

**TABLE 3.** Tax collection, tax effort and MCPF for 41 African countries

Country	Tax collection	Tax effort	MCPF -Consumption Goods (Domestic)	MCPF - Income (labour) tax
Benin			1.15	2.55
Botswana	High	High	0.95	1.18
Burundi			1.10	1.74
Burkina Faso	Low	Low	1.17	1.68
Cameroon	Low	Low	1.04	1.22
Cape Verde			1.09	1.51
Central African Rep	Low	Low	1.17	1.79
Chad	Low	Low	1.09	1.26
Congo, Rep			1.11	1.33
Congo, Dem. Rep			1.08	1.30
Côte d'Ivoire	Low	High	1.09	1.65
Egypt	Low	Low		
Equatorial Guinea			1.34	1.27
Eritrea			1.15	1.99
Eswatini			0.87	1.36
Ethiopia	Low	Low	1.17	1.91
Gambia			1.04	1.27
Gabon			1.05	1.32
Ghana	Low	High	1.05	1.38
Guinea			1.14	1.45
Guinea Bissau			1.08	1.22
Kenya	Low	High	1.11	1.32
Madagascar			1.14	1.33
Malawi			1.19	1.65
Mali	Low	High	1.09	1.62
Mauritania			1.06	1.31
Morocco	High	High		
Mozambique			1.14	1.35
Namibia	High	High	1.00	1.34
Niger			1.18	2.09
Nigeria			1.04	1.20
Rwanda			1.23	2.28
Senegal			1.08	1.48
South Africa	High	High	1.08	1.22
Sudan			1.09	1.73
Tanzania			1.18	1.57
Togo	Low	High	1.07	1.47
Tunisia	High	High		
Uganda			1.08	1.49
Zambia	Low	High	1.13	1.23
Zimbabwe	High	High	1.22	1.50
Average			1.11	1.51

**Source:** Derived from Auriol and Warlters 2012 and Le, Moreno-Dodson and Bayraktar 2012.

Note: Blank cells indicate lack of data.



by improvements in the quality of governance, particularly by lowering bureaucracy and corruption. On a transition path of 20 years, this has been found by the IMF (2017) both to reduce resource misallocation and to enable a higher GDP growth rate, adding between 0.9 and 1.3 percent to annual growth.

There are also six countries in Table 3 that are classified as low-collection-high-effort countries. Countries in this group are in a problematic situation where the actual tax collection is above their taxable capacity; but their tax collection can still be improved by reducing tax evasion and compliance costs and correcting skewed or narrow tax bases. These countries probably exploit some revenue sources through high tax rates to compensate for failure in taxing other potential sources. As is the case for high-collection-high-effort countries, improvements in tax administration should aim at reducing compliance costs and tax distortions, encouraging the growth of the formal economy and creating a favourable legal and regulatory environment to attract investment.

#### 6.4.2 Other options for expanding fiscal space in Africa

There are several financing options that can be pursued to expand the fiscal space in Africa. These include introducing new taxes, securing official development assistance and grants, minimizing illicit financial flows and reprioritizing public spending through budget reallocations. The discussion below takes up each of these in turn. Not all of these options are equally feasible or desirable.

##### *Introducing new taxes*

The level of general taxation can be increased by improving the efficiency of tax collection from existing taxpayers, expanding the tax base, or changing tax rates. Another option is to impose

new taxes, though this rarely receives much political support. From an equity perspective, new taxes ought to be progressive, as the purpose of raising public expenditure on social assistance is compromised if the revenue used for such expenditure is generated from regressive sources.<sup>12</sup> However, it should be noted that low- to middle-income countries' tax systems are inherently regressive, which makes it impossible to avoid regressive taxes altogether when mobilizing resources. Therefore, tax reform can encompass both progressive and regressive taxes, provided that the net social impact of both additional spending on social assistance and extra taxation has positive outcomes for the poor.

Ghana and Liberia have introduced new taxes that are directed at airports and hotels. Some countries outside Africa have introduced taxes on fuel emissions for cargo transport, remittances and the national lottery. However, some new taxes could lead to unintended outcomes. For instance, taxing remittances which increases their cost to the remitter could lower the value of funds received by poor recipients.

Taxes on the exploitation of natural resources can be a viable strategy, especially in cases where countries renegotiate the terms on which operations have been performed in the past. In Africa, rent from mining and extractive industries is an important government asset. Yet another way to generate revenue is through making savings as a result of better expenditure management, either in the procurement of goods and services or through rationalization of subsidies, such as fuel. Saving also increases a government's fiscal base.

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<sup>12</sup> A progressive tax is a tax whereby groups with a higher income contribute a higher percentage of their income than lower-income groups (i.e. the tax rate increases with income). A tax is considered regressive when lower-income groups contribute a higher share of income than higher-income groups.

### *Official development assistance (ODA) and grants*

In low-income countries, social assistance programmes are heavily dependent on development partner funding, whereas in middle-income countries like South Africa these programmes are fully funded from the domestic budget. In some low-income countries such as Rwanda, the scaling up of social assistance has been achieved through increased Government commitment and increased donor funding. In the case of Ethiopia, development partners finance almost 100 percent of the Productive Safety Net Programme, while in Burkina Faso, donor funding has increased almost five-fold in recent years (Monchuk, 2014).

External financing can be critical for launching and extending social assistance and can act as a catalyst for additional domestic efforts on social assistance. For instance, the role of development partners was central in advocating for an increase in budget allocations to implement Mozambique's social protection strategy and to develop the operational plan. The Government decided to increase budget allocations for social protection by 40 percent in the 2012 budget (Cunha and others, 2013).

ODA may also be important for meeting the high initial costs of building social protection institutions in Africa. However, the case for using ODA to fund social assistance such as cash transfers directly is weak, as this is unsustainable and can have an adverse impact on institutional development (Holmqvist, 2011). International aid can assist in building capacity to mobilize tax revenues and set up social assistance systems so that over time, the state should be able to minimize dependence on ODA. High or exclusive reliance on external funding raises issues of country ownership, policy legitimacy and financial sustainability of programmes (Bachelet, 2011; Barrientos, 2013; Hagen-Zanker and McCord, 2011).

### *Reduction of illicit financial flows and tax avoidance*

In the period 2003-2012, Africa lost an estimated US\$300 to US\$600 billion in illicit outflows.<sup>13</sup> Ninety percent of these outflows are from the resource-rich countries. Based on income classification, 17 percent of the illicit outflows were from low-income countries, 52 percent from lower middle-income countries, and the remaining 30 percent from upper middle-income and high-income countries. Illicit outflows from Nigeria and South Africa comprised nearly half (46 percent) of the total outflows over the ten-year period (Annex C.2).

Illicit financial flows (IFFs) out of Africa exceed the value of ODA into Africa by an order of magnitude. This means that, rather than being a net recipient of global capital flows, as is often assumed, Africa is actually a net contributor. An increasing trend in illicit financial outflows has coincided with a period of relatively high economic growth in Africa, and these IFFs are negating the potential positive impact of increased growth on poverty reduction, not least by limiting governments' abilities to mobilize and allocate adequate resources for social assistance programmes and other social sector investments.

Outflows resulting from deliberate trade mis-invoicing (over-invoicing of exports and under-invoicing of imports) make up more than three-fourths of the total illicit financial flows. Trade mispricing is the falsification of the price, quality and quantity values of traded goods for a variety of reasons, such as a desire to evade customs duties and domestic levies. Over-invoicing of imports has been practiced by importers for many years. Under-invoicing of exports is common in the natural resource sector (AU and UNECA, 2015).

Transfer pricing, whereby inputs are sold at highly inflated prices to a sister company so that very little profit is recorded in countries with high tax rates, is also frequently used for tax avoidance purposes. This

<sup>13</sup> The wide range is due to different estimation methodologies used by the AU and UNECA (2015) and Kar and Spanjers (2014).



is not illegal insofar as companies do comply with tax laws but simply ensure that profits are recognized to the greatest extent possible in countries with the lowest tax rates. However, many would regard this practice as immoral, particularly when governments of poorer countries are deprived of desperately needed tax revenue to meet the basic needs of their populations.

#### *Reallocation from other sectors and reduction of subsidies*

It might seem that the simplest way to increase social assistance spending is to reallocate resources from other social sector programmes, since social spending absorbs about one-third of total public expenditure in most countries. However, that would be a zero-sum game and may leave education and health, which are equally important for the poor, deprived of crucial resources. Consequently, increased allocation for social assistance programmes is likely to require a reduction of spending in other sectors, which requires difficult political choices.

For example, reallocation of fuel subsidies could become an important mechanism for countries to pursue increased access to social assistance. Worldwide, nearly half a trillion dollars were spent on fossil fuel subsidies in 2010. Although these subsidies can protect poor people to some extent from high fuel costs, in practice the benefits are captured more by wealthy households, they promote overconsumption of fuel, and they discourage energy efficiency. However, abolishing fuel subsidies to redirect them into social sector investments such as social assistance programmes is often difficult to pursue because of public opposition. In 2010, for instance, Nigeria cut fossil fuel subsidies by 50 percent with the intention of redirecting funds towards maternal and child health programmes, only to partly reinstate the subsidy following widespread protests.

The perceived benefits of fossil fuel subsidies are apparent in daily life, and their removal is felt abruptly and immediately. In places where corruption is common, people might doubt that savings will be

used effectively for such programmes and therefore prefer to retain the benefits they already receive from fossil fuel subsidies. Meanwhile, reallocation of funds towards other government programmes can take time to yield results.

It is important to keep in mind that mobilizing resources and switching expenditure within the public sector involves trade-offs and potential effects on incentives, which can be positive or negative, or both, depending on the particular country context. For example, as noted above, care must be taken to ensure that prioritizing social assistance in the allocation of government funds does not compromise public investment in education, health and other essential sectors.

#### 6.4.3 Challenges to improving fiscal resources in Africa

Domestic resource mobilization in Africa has not kept pace with growth in GDP (AfDB, OECD and UNDP, 2017). This section briefly discusses three challenges in attempting to mobilize domestic resources.

Firstly, the tax revenue of resource-rich countries is highly unstable, partly because of the instability of resource revenues. For example, between 2012 and 2015 a slump in commodity prices, especially oil, resulted in a fall of 44 percent in resource revenue that translated to a decrease of 22 percent in domestic revenue for resource-rich African countries (AfDB, OECD and UNDP, 2017).

Secondly, the large informal economy in Africa makes mobilizing domestic resources difficult. Typically, the informal sector does not disclose or report taxable income for a number of reasons, including high tax rates and constraining regulatory requirements. Despite efforts to formalize the informal economy, the informal sector in Africa keeps growing, undermining efforts to broaden the tax base.

Thirdly, in 2010 the African Economic Outlook (AfDB and OECD, 2010) raised the possibility that receiving significant amounts of ODA might reduce the incentives for governments to mobilize domestic

resources. Several other studies have suggested that there is a negative correlation between levels of ODA and domestic mobilization of resources (Benedek and others, 2012; Gupta, Clements, and Inchauste, 2004). This negative correlation is reportedly stronger for low-income countries and presents a challenge for increasing aid as a source of revenue.

## 6.5 Conclusions

Several crucial points emerge from this chapter. First, the major source of public revenue in Africa is VAT, followed by taxes on specific goods and services. Richer countries and resource-rich countries collect a higher level of revenue as a share of GDP. Public revenue is usually not enough to meet public needs, resulting in budget deficits in almost all African countries.

Second, meeting the demand for social assistance is a challenge, given that spending on social assistance is nested within the larger allocation of public resources that are already constrained. Available data suggests that social assistance expenditure constitutes 0.02–5.55 percent of GDP across countries in Africa. The level of social assistance expenditure per poor person averages US\$18.56 per annum, when countries such as Mauritius, Seychelles and South Africa that skew the data are excluded. Interestingly, non-resource-rich countries spend more on social assistance than resource-rich countries.

Third, despite a widespread perception that social assistance in Africa is mostly financed by development partners, available expenditure data for the period 2010-2015 reveals that domestic financing exceeds that of donors. This could be because international partners often support small-scale pilot projects that reach relatively few participants, compared with institutionalized programmes that are more likely to have nationwide reach. In countries such as Ghana, Kenya, Rwanda and Zambia, the Government's contribution towards social assistance programmes has been steadily replacing that of donors, although donor funding still plays an important role.

Fourth, African governments commit more expenditure on programmes that reach older persons. This may well be a political choice. Public works programmes that target youth and adults attract the least budgetary commitments but provide a higher cash transfer per person than programmes targeted at other groups.

Fifth, countries in Africa should take urgent steps to raise domestic revenue for social assistance, by improving tax administration and revenue collection. Countries have different options, depending on their tax collection and tax effort. Low-collection-low-effort countries can improve their revenue by increasing the tax rate on domestic consumption goods rather than on personal income tax, while making sure that revenue raising in this way does not increase poverty. High-collection-high-effort countries should aim at reducing tax distortion, simplifying administration systems and procedures and improving the business environment to increase their fiscal space. Low-collection-high-effort countries can expand their fiscal space by reducing tax distortion and compliance costs, encouraging the spread of the formal economy and creating a favourable regulatory environment.

Finally, it is imperative that the recommendations of the Addis Ababa Action Agenda are implemented, to enhance domestic revenue for financing inclusive social and economic development.













Country

# PROFILES



# Algeria

**Sub-region** | North Africa

**Population** | 39.87m

**GNI/capita** | USD14, 230.00

**Tax to GDP** | 37.2%

**HDI** | 0.75

## Social Assistance Overview

Social security laws were passed in 1945 and applied before independence in 1962. After independence, a Decree (64/364 of December 31, 1962) was issued to establish the National Social Security Fund in Algeria. To date, there are three social assistance programmes, with the main one being the Allocation Forfaitaire de Solidarité (Solidarity Allowance), which aims to promote the social integration of the poor population and strengthen social cohesion by ensuring delivery of fundamental social rights. The programme transfers a minimum of US\$94.74 and maximum of US\$106.11 cash to participants per month and comprises three schemes. The first scheme targets those of working age (youth and adults) through public works. The second and third schemes target older persons and persons with disability, respectively, through cash transfers paid every month. In 2012/2013, the three existing schemes had a total of 888,651 participants. The social assistance programmes have mechanisms that allow access to a social worker. A national coordination agency is responsible for managing programmes and coordinating government efforts is in place.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework		
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1972]	
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1995]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996)[1989]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1987]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966)[1996]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[2003]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1993]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[2016]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2005]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[2011]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006)[2009]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Allocation Forfaitaire de Solidarité–Solidarity Allowance	Old age and People living with disability (PWD)	High	
Dispositif d'Activité d'Insertion Sociale (DAIS) -Intervention for Social Inclusion	Youth and adults		Government Ministry
Travaux d'Utilité Publique à Haute Intensité de Main d'Oeuvre (TUP-HIMO)–Labour-Intensive Public Works	Youth and adults	High	Government Ministry



# Angola

**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 27.86m

**GNI/capita** | USD6300.00

**Tax to GDP** | 12.5%

**HDI** | 0.53

## Social Assistance Overview

It is only in the past decade that Angola has made progress in social protection, implemented through the Social Protection Act of 2004. The Act sets out a three-pronged approach to social protection, including a “basic” tax-financed component for minimum subsistence and dignity targeted at the most vulnerable segments of the population, a compulsory component targeted at the formal economy, and a voluntary and supplementary component targeted at those able to contribute more to enhance their benefits. As of 2015, there was one social assistance programme, the Cartão Kikua Credit Card Transfer Programme, which aimed to fight poverty while improving participants’ nutritional status and reinforcing the role of women in fighting against food insecurity. The programme, which is currently not operational, was a cash transfer that geographically targeted children, older persons, persons with disabilities, poor and food-insecure households. The programme had 50,000 households as of 2014, with a transfer amount of US\$142 per month. There was national coordination in place and the programme provided access to a social worker, although it did not allow for appeals to be made. A prepaid card was used to access goods at shops run by government contractors and privately-owned supermarkets.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	4
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [2013]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1992]	
	African Charter on Human and People’s Right (1981)[1990]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [2013]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[1992]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966)[1986]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[2007]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990)	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[2009]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2014)	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[2013]		

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Cartão Kikua–Kikua Card Cash Transfer Programme	Children, Old age and People living with disability (PWD)		Government Ministry



# Benin

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 10.58m

**GNI/capita** | USD2110.00

**Tax to GDP** | 15.4%

**HDI** | 0.49

## Social Assistance Overview

Benin introduced social insurance laws related to work injury, sickness, maternity and unemployment before independence in 1960. By 2003, most of these laws had been updated by the Benin administration. In 2015, a social assistance programme named the *Projet de Services Décentralisés Conduits par les Communautés (PSDCC)*, was introduced as a pilot with 12,500 household participants receiving a cash transfer of between US\$16 and US\$60 every month. The programme aims to establish an efficient social safety net system to protect the poor, smooth consumption and improve households' ability to cope with shocks. Benin's social assistance programme allows for appeals to be made against selection decisions. Social assistance spending was 2.90 percent of GDP in 2014, translating into social assistance spending of US\$55.23 per poor person.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	4
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		<b>NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=1&amp;2; 5=1&amp;3; 6=2&amp;3; 7=1,2&amp;3; 8=other</b>	
Other	Yes		

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [2001]	Maternity Protection Convention, 2000, (No. 183) [2012]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1999]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1992]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [1992]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1997]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966)[1992]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2005]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2014]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2005]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2012]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Projet de Services Décentralisés Conduits par les Communautés (PSDCC)	Other	Low	Government Ministry



# Botswana

**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 2.21m

**GNI/capita** | USD16010.00

**Tax to GDP** | 25.8%

**HDI** | 0.75

## Social Assistance Overview

Botswana introduced a work injury regulatory framework in 1936 and all other social insurance related instruments were introduced after independence in 1966. A social assistance programme, the Destitute Persons' Allowance, was introduced in 1980. The programme aims to ensure the provision of minimum assistance to destitute citizens, specifically targeting poor people and persons with disabilities. In 1988, a Vulnerable Group Feeding Programme was introduced to assist children, pregnant women, and chronically ill individuals who are the most vulnerable and food-insecure with food transfers. The programme had 383,392 individual participants in 2013 receiving food rations via clinics. In 1996, the Old-Age Pension, targeting all individuals who are at least 65 years old, was introduced. It provides a cash transfer of about US\$74.26 every month through post offices, bank deposits and pension officers at the community councils. To cater for the poor but working-age population, the *Ipelegeng* public works programme was introduced in 2008. Of all the social assistance programmes, only the World War Veterans Allowance and National Orphan Care Programme allow for appeals to be made against selection decisions. The Government of Botswana fully funds its social assistance programmes and as of 2010, social assistance expenditure was 1.64 percent of GDP.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy			Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 4
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other
Other	Yes	2010	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1974]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1996]		
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2001]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1996]	
		Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1995]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Destitute Persons' Allowance	Youth, adults and PWD	High	Government Ministry
National Orphan Care Programme	Children	High	Government Ministry
The Old-Age Pension (OAP)	Old age	High	Government Ministry
Vulnerable Group Feeding Programme (VGF)	Children and other		Hybrid
World War II (WWII) Veterans Allowance	Other	High	Government Ministry



# Burkina Faso

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 18.11m

**GNI/capita** | USD1600.00

**Tax to GDP** | 14.1%

**HDI** | 0.40

## Social Assistance Overview

Burkina Faso introduced laws on work injury, sickness and maternity, old age, disability and survivor benefits as part of the social insurance system before independence in 1960. Social assistance was first introduced through the *Nahouri* Cash Transfers Pilot Project in 2008 to reduce poverty among HIV/AIDS-affected families. In 2015, the *Burkin-Naong-Sa ya* (another social assistance programme) transferred an average of US\$10.88 each quarter to 316,000 participants. The programme is designed at the central government level and is executed by the Government with financial assistance from the World Bank and the Multi-donor Trust Fund for Adaptive Social Protection in the Sahel. Social assistance expenditure as a percentage of GDP was 0.58 in 2016. Based on this, social assistance spending on each poor person in Burkina Faso in 2016 was US\$8.32 per year, assuming that the poor are targeted successfully.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2012	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	No		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=1&2; 5=1&3; 6=2&3; 7=1,2&3; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1974]	Maternity Protection Convention, 2000, (No. 183) [2013]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1999]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1984]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) (Signed 2012)	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[1992]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1987]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[2006]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[2008]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2003]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2009]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Nahouri Cash Transfers Pilot Project (NCTPP)	Children		Donor Agency
Burkin-Naong-Sa ya	Children	High	Government Ministry

**Sub-region** | Central Africa

**Population** | 10.20m

**GNI/capita** | USD800.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.40

## Social Assistance Overview

The first social protection laws were introduced in Burundi before independence in 1960. Thereafter, family allowances and sickness and maternity laws were introduced as part of social insurance. The first social assistance programme was the transfer to support the socioeconomic reintegration of people affected by the conflict in Burundi, abbreviated as the PARSPAC-B. As of 2012, the programme paid US\$8.29 as cash for work per day. Two other cash for work related programmes were introduced in 2010 and 2011 in other districts and these are Burundi Intensification and Agricultural Development Support Project (PAIVA-B) and the *Programme de Développement des Filières (PRODEFI)*, respectively. The social assistance expenditure spent on each poor person in 2012 was US\$17.25, assuming that the poor were targeted successfully. In 2012, the programmes covered a total of 27,835 participants. Burundi's social assistance expenditure is largely dependent on external aid, much of which is for emergency humanitarian assistance.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2011	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 4
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1977]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1990) [1999]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1989]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[2004]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1992]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[Signed 2003]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[Signed 2006]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[Signed 2009]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2009]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Projet d'appui à l'intensification et à la valorisation Agricoles du Burundi (PAIVA-B)	Youth, adults and other		Donor Agency
Programme d'appui à la réintégration socio-économique des personnes affectées par le conflit au Burundi (PARSPAC-B)	Youth, adults and other		Donor Agency
Programme de développement des filières (PRODEFI)	Youth, adults and other		Donor Agency



# Cabo Verde

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 0.53m

**GNI/capita** | USD6070.00

**Tax to GDP** | 17.9%

**HDI** | 0.65

## Social Assistance Overview

The old age, disability and survivors' laws, as well as work injury laws were introduced in Cabo Verde before independence in 1995. Thereafter, a law on sickness and maternity was introduced. In 1992, Cabo Verde started a social assistance programme named the *Frentes de Alta Intensidade de Mão-de-Obra* (FAIMO), aiming to provide job security for rural workers and cash transfers to older persons, also in rural areas. As of 2009, the cash for work component of the programme had 16,000 participants. In 2006, Cabo Verde introduced a nationwide Social Pension programme to provide income security for elderly citizens, persons with disabilities and poor children with disabilities through a cash transfer of at least US\$107.28 per month as at 2015. Cabo Verde has a single agency, created through a Decree-Law, responsible for managing programmes and coordinating government efforts. In 2010, social assistance expenditure was 1.18 percent of GDP.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2005	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">Yes</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1979]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1987]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1993]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1987]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) (Signed 2014)	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[1993]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1980]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[2005]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1992]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[2011]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [1997]	
		Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2011]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Frentes de Alta Intensidade de Mão-de-Obra (FAIMO)-(A)	Youth, Adults and Old age		Government Ministry
Pensão Social–Social Pension	Old age and Persons with disability	High	Government Ministry





# Cameroon

**Sub-region** | Central Africa

**Population** | 22.83m

**GNI/capita** | USD3140.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.52

## Social Assistance Overview

Cameroon introduced most of its social insurance before independence in 1960, with the exception of the old age, disability and survivors' law that was first introduced in 1969 and implemented in 1974 as part of social insurance. Cameroon initiated its first social assistance programme in 2014. The programme, named the Social Safety Net Project, is a pilot that seeks to improve the living conditions of poor and vulnerable populations, as well as improving the participants' health, nutrition and education. Using community-based targeting and proxy means tests to identify participants, the programme reaches 40,000 households who receive about US\$93.61 bimonthly. The programme has a cash transfer and a public works component that also includes training activities related to financial literacy and income-generation. Local governments can modify or complement the central government's plans when implementing social assistance programmes.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	2
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1971]	
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1995]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1984]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1989]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[1994]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1994]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[2012]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1993]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[2011]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [Signed 2009]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[2015]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [Signed 2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Projet de Filet de Protection Sociale - Social Safety Net Project	Youth and adults	Medium	Government Ministry



# Central African Republic

**Sub-region** | Central Africa

**Population** | 4.55m

**GNI/capita** | USD670.00

**Tax to GDP** | 9.4%

**HDI** | 0.35

## Social Assistance Overview

Central African Republic (CAR) introduced laws on work injury, sickness and maternity, old age, disability and survivors as part of the social insurance system before independence in 1964. As at 2015, CAR had no social assistance programme in place.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2012	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 8
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1971]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1964]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1981]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1986]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [2016]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[2016]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1991]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[Signed 2008]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1992]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[Signed 2008]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2016]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[2010]		

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-

**Sub-region** | Central Africa

**Population** | 14.01m

**GNI/capita** | USD2110.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.40

## Social Assistance Overview

Chad introduced laws on work injury, sickness and maternity, old age, disability and survivors as part of the social insurance system before independence in 1960. In 2010, a social assistance programme named the *N'Djamena Nadif* (Clean N'Djamena) was introduced by the central mayor's office. *N'Djamena Nadif* is a labour-intensive public works programme that aims to improve the living conditions of the capital city's residents by putting in place an effective system to clean the streets and public market places as well as a garbage collection system, targeting women as participants. However, the local authorities could not maintain this programme and it is currently not operational.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2014	Constitutional provision for social protection
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1977]	Social Security(Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No.102) [
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1995]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1986]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[2000]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1995]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[Signed 2008]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[2012]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [Signed 2012]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[2011]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [Signed 2012]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
N'Djamena Nadif ('Clean N'Djamena')	Other		

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 0.78m

**GNI/capita** | USD1510.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.50

## Social Assistance Overview

In 2015, a social assistance programme named Argent Contre Travail (ACT) was introduced in 2015. The programme is a cash for work transfer that targets the poor working-age population with a daily payment of US\$4.97. The ACT was put in place to promote employment and develop participants' skills as part of the working day. The programme is executed by the Government of Comoros with the assistance of an international partner. As of 2016, Comoros spent 0.67 percent of GDP on social assistance, translating to US\$28.69 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2005	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [2004]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1994]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [Signed 2008]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2004]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1994]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1993]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [Signed 2010]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [Signed 2000]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2010]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2016]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Argent Contre Travail (ACT)–Cash for Work	Youth and Adults		Hybrid

# Cote d'Ivoire

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 23.11m

**GNI/capita** | USD3360.00

**Tax to GDP** | 14%

**HDI** | 0.47

## Social Assistance Overview

Côte d'Ivoire introduced laws on sickness and maternity, family allowances and work injury as part of social insurance system before 1961. Côte d'Ivoire then introduced its first social assistance programme, named Temporary Employment Opportunities for Youth, in 2011. This public works programme targets youth in order to provide them with work opportunities and training. The participants receive a temporary three-month contract, renewable for an additional three months. As of 2015, the programme had 12,693 participants.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2013	Constitutional provision for social protection No
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 7
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1979]	Social Security(Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No.102) [
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) 1992]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1992]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2002]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1995]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2011)	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2009)		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2013]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2014]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Temporary Employment Opportunities for Youth (Component of the Emergency Youth Employment and Skills Development Project)	Youth		





# Democratic Republic of the Congo

**Sub-region** | Central Africa

**Population** | 76.20m

**GNI/capita** | USD740.00

**Tax to GDP** | 8.80

**HDI** | 0.44

## Social Assistance Overview

The Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) introduced social insurance laws such as the work injury, family allowances and the old age, disability, and survivors' benefits before 1961. Independence attained in 1960 was followed by civil war and temporary fragmentation of the country, which has affected the provision of social protection. As of 2015, DRC did not have a social assistance programme.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2016	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1971]	Social Security(Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No.102) [1964]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1981]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1986]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [2016]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[2016]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1991]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[Signed 2008]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1992]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[Signed 2008]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[2010]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2016]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-



# Djibouti

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 0.93m

**GNI/capita** |

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.47

## Social Assistance Overview

Djibouti introduced laws on work injury, sickness and maternity, old age, disability and survivors as part of the social insurance system before independence, which took place in 1977. Social assistance programmes, starting with the Social Assistance Pilot Programme on Labour and Human Capital, were introduced from 2010. The pilot programme aimed to create employment opportunities in order to improve nutritional practices through behavioural change and enhance living standards in Djibouti through increased access to basic economic and social infrastructure and services. The second social assistance programme, introduced in 2015, was the National Programme of Family Solidarity, which aims to provide support for families in extreme poverty. It targets children, persons with disabilities, older persons and pregnant women, and provides them a cash transfer of US\$181.80 per quarter, as of 2015. The social assistance expenditure was 0.14 percent of GDP in 2015, translating to US\$0.01 per poor person per year, assuming the poor are targeted successfully. The social assistance programmes are implemented by the central government.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	No
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	8
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2000]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [2011]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [Signed 1991]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [2002]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1991]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2011]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1998]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2005]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1980]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2008]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2015]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2012]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Programme National de Solidarité Famille (PNSF)–National Programme of Family Solidarity	Children, Old age and other		Government Ministry
Social Assistance Pilot Program on Labor and Human Capital First 1000 Days	Youth and adults	High	Government Ministry

**Sub-region** | North Africa

**Population** | 93.78m

**GNI/capita** | USD10720.00

**Tax to GDP** | 12.5%

**HDI** | 0.69

## Social Assistance Overview

Egypt introduced its first social protection programme in the 1920s through food and energy subsidies. Thereafter, laws on social insurance, such as work injury, unemployment, sickness and maternity, old age, disability and survivor benefits were introduced. In 1980, the Government introduced its first social assistance programme named the Social Solidarity Pension to prevent poverty among households with no men able to work. The programme transfers a minimum cash amount of US\$133 and maximum amount of US\$186.80 every month to 1,500,000 households. In 2014, *Takaful and Karama* (Solidarity and Dignity) conditional cash transfer was introduced to promote children's human development, while unconditional cash transfers were used to promote social inclusion among older persons and persons with disabilities. The transfer payments for the programme range from US\$202.37 to US\$389.17 per month for children and US\$217.93 to US\$653.80 for older persons as well as persons with disability. As of 2010, social assistance expenditure as a percentage of GDP was 0.17 percent, translating to US\$146.50 of social assistance expenditure per poor person that year, assuming that the poor are targeted successfully. The Social Solidarity Pension programme does not allow for appeals, but the *Takaful and Karama* programme does. The social assistance programmes are implemented by the central government, with assistance from donors in the case of the *Takaful and Karama*.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	7
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1967]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1983]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1982]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1984]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2001]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1981]	
		Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2015]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [1993]	
		Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
MOSA Social Solidarity Pension	Children, Old age and persons living with disability	High	Government Agency
Takaful and Karama	Children, Old age and persons living with disability	High	Donor Agency



# Equatorial Guinea

**Sub-region** | Central Africa

**Population** | 1.18m

**GNI/capita** | USD19440.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.59

## Social Assistance Overview

Equatorial Guinea introduced old age, disability and survivors, sickness and maternity, work injury and family allowance laws as part of its social insurance system before the 1968 independence. In 1984, the laws were updated and then implemented in 1990, covering only employed persons including civil servants and military personnel. Equatorial Guinea does not have a social assistance programme yet.

### Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework

Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		

### Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments

Regional	International
Sub-regional Communities	United Nations International Labour Organization
African Union	
Constitutive Act of the African Union [2000]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [2002]
Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [2002]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1987]
African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1986]	
African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[2002]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1984]
African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[2009]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1992]
African Youth Charter (2006)[Signed 2009]	
African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[Signed 2009]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

### Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization

Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 4.85m

**GNI/capita** |

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.42

## Social Assistance Overview

As at 2015, Eritrea did not have a social assistance programme in place.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	8
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [2001]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [Signed 2012]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [2001]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1999]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1999]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1995]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2002]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1994]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2012]		

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-





# Eswatini

**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 1.32m

**GNI/capita** | USD7980.00

**Tax to GDP** | 28.7%

**HDI** | 0.54

## Social Assistance Overview

The regulatory framework on work injury was set up in Eswatini (formerly Swaziland) before independence in 1968, and laws on old age, disability and survivors as well as sickness and maternity were introduced after independence. In 1985, a social assistance programme named the Public Assistance Grant was started to assist the destitute and persons with disability. The programme reached 5,075 individuals in 2011 and the programme's quarterly transfer amount was US\$21.17 as at 2010. In 2005, an Old Age Grant was introduced to respond to the extreme vulnerability experienced by elderly people. The programme had 65,000 individual participants in 2010, receiving an average of US\$78.53 per quarter. The Government fully funds the social assistance programmes. Spending on social assistance as at 2011 was 1.31 percent of GDP.

### Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework

Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

### Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments

Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1969]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [2001]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [2004]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1995]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2012]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [2004]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2012]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1995]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2012]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2012]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

### Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization

Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Old-Age Grant	Old age	High	Government Department
Public Assistance Grant	Persons with disability and other		Government Department



# Ethiopia

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 99.87m

**GNI/capita** | USD1630

**Tax to GDP** | 9.2%

**HDI** | 0.49

## Social Assistance Overview

Ethiopia first introduced public-sector pensions and work injury laws in 1963, as part of its social insurance system. In 2003 and 2011 respectively, sickness and maternity laws and private-sector pensions were introduced. In 2005, Ethiopia introduced its first social assistance programme - Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP), which consists of: cash; food transfers; and public works. The transfer cash amount is equivalent to 15kg of cereals and 4kg of pulses and is provided monthly. The wage rate varies according to the purchasing power in different areas of the country. In 2011, a pilot, named the Tigray Social Cash Transfer Pilot Programme (SCTPP) was introduced to reduce poverty, hunger and starvation in extremely poor and labour-constrained households. The programme's transfer amount ranges from US\$31.41 to US\$66.68 per month. As at 2013, social assistance spending per 0.94 percent of GDP, translating to US\$14.07 of social assistance spending per poor person per year, assuming that the programmes target the poor successfully. In the period 2014/2015, social assistance had 10,003,767 participants. The PSNP does not allow for appeals, but the recently introduced SCTPP does. Both programmes are executed by the Government with the support of international partners. There is national coordination in place and the SCTPP programme provides access to a social worker.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2012	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 7
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1976]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1993]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1998]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2002]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1981]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2014]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2009]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2010]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP)	Other		Hybrid
Tigray Social Cash Transfer Pilot Programme (SCTPP)	Children, old age and persons with disability	Low	Hybrid

**Sub-region** | Central Africa

**Population** | 1.93m

**GNI/capita** | USD16430.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.70

## Social Assistance Overview

Gabon introduced work injury, sickness and maternity, and family allowances laws, as part of social insurance before gaining independence in 1960. Gabon went on to introduce pensions, social security, and social assistance laws after attaining independence. Gabon does not have a social assistance programme yet.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2017	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1980]	
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [2007]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1983]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1986]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [Signed 2014]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[2007]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1983]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[2011]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1994]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[2007]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [Signed 2004]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[2011]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2007]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 1.98m

**GNI/capita** | USD1640.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.45

## Social Assistance Overview

The Gambia introduced its work injury law in 1940 and old age, disability, and survivors and sickness and maternity provisions after the 1960 independence. It introduced a social assistance programme named the Family Strengthening Programme in 2011. The programme focuses on strengthening the income-generation capacities and livelihood security of poor and vulnerable families.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2015	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">Yes</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution <span style="float: right;">8</span>
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		<b>NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other</b>

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1978]	
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1978]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1983]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2000]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1993]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2005)	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2009)	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [Signed 2017]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2011]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2015]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Family Strengthening Programme	Other		Government Ministry



**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 27.58m

**GNI/capita** | USD4060.00

**Tax to GDP** | 14.9%

**HDI** | 0.58

### Social Assistance Overview

Ghana enacted its work injury regulatory framework in 1940 and its old age, disability, and survivors and sickness and maternity frameworks after the 1957 independence. The Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty, a social assistance programme, was introduced in Ghana in 2008. The programme's objective is to reduce short-term poverty and develop long-term human capital through a combination of unconditional cash transfers to the elderly and persons with disabilities and conditional cash transfers to orphaned and vulnerable children. In 2010, a Labour-Intensive Public Works was introduced to provide participants with employment with a daily wage amount of US\$9.79. The total number of participants reached by the two social assistance programmes as at 2014 was about 361,743. Ghana has a national coordination in place which is responsible for managing programmes and coordinating government efforts. In 2015 social assistance expenditure was 0.3 percent of GDP, translating to spending of US\$33.89 per poor person.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2015	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">Yes</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution <span style="float: right;">4</span>
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		<b>NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other</b>

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1966]	
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1991]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [2000]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1989]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [Signed 2009]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2005]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1986]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2007]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2013]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2000]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2012]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Labour-Intensive Public Works (LIPW)	Youth and adults		Hybrid
Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP)	Children, Old age, Persons with disability and other	Medium	Government Ministry





# Guinea Bissau

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 1.77m

**GNI/capita** | USD1510.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.42

## Social Assistance Overview

As at 2015, Guinea-Bissau did not have a social assistance programme in place.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [2010]	
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1992]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1985]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [Signed 2009]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2008]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1985]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2008]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2008]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [Signed 2000]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2012] [2011]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2014]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 12.09m

**GNI/capita** | USD1170.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.41

## Social Assistance Overview

Guinea introduced work injury and family allowances as part of its social insurance framework before the 1958 independence. In 1958 and thereafter, the old age, disability, and survivors, and sickness and maternity frameworks were introduced as well. The Productive Social Safety Net Programme (PSSNP), a pilot social assistance programme, started operating in 2012, with the objective of supplementing the incomes of poor households through the provision of cash transfers and linking participating households with complementary services so that they can leap out of poverty. In 2013, the Cash Transfer for Health, Nutrition and Education as well as the Labour-Intensive Public Works Programme were designed, introduced and implemented by the Government and international partners. The former programme aims to provide income support to children with a bimonthly cash transfer that ranges between US\$16.17 and US\$97.03. The latter programme targets underemployed and unemployed people and provides a daily wage of US\$15.11. Social assistance expenditure in 2015 was 0.37 percent of GDP, and this translated to US\$7.61 per poor person.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional	International		
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2002]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1977]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1967]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1978]	Employment Injury Benefits Convention, 1964 (No. 121) [1967]
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1982]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1999]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1982]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2012]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2011]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2000]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Cash Transfer for Health, Nutrition and Education	Children		Hybrid
Productive Social Safety Net Programme - Cash Transfer Programme		High	Non-profit Organisation
Labour-Intensive Public Works Programme	Youth and adults		Hybrid

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 47.24m

**GNI/capita** | USD2990.00

**Tax to GDP** | 16.3%

**HDI** | 0.55

## Social Assistance Overview

The work injury regulatory framework came into effect in 1946 before Kenya attained its independence in 1963. In 1965 and 1966, the old age, disability, and survivors and sickness and maternity laws were enacted. Kenya introduced a social assistance programme named the Cash Transfer for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in 2004, which aimed at strengthening the capacity of poor people to care for and protect orphans and vulnerable children, while promoting the development of human capital. As at 2015, the programme had 340,000 household participants. Between 2006 and 2010, four more social assistance programmes were introduced, three of which are targeted at the old aged and persons with severe disabilities and one to youth as a public works programme aimed at providing temporary employment opportunities and improving their employability. Of all the five social assistance programmes that exist in Kenya, only the Hunger Safety Net Programme allows applicants to appeal against selection decisions. Social assistance expenditure was 0.33 percent of GDP in 2016.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2011	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">Yes</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution <span style="float: right;">5</span>
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		<b>NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other</b>

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [2001]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1971]
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1972]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1992]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2000]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1984]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2010]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2014]		
		Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Cash Transfers for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (CT-OVC)	Children	Medium	Non-profit Organisation
Hunger Safety Net Programme (HSNP)	Old age and persons with disability	Medium	Non-profit Organisation
Older Persons' Cash Transfer (OPCT)	Old age	Low	Government Ministry
Persons with Severe Disability Cash Transfer (PWSD-CT)	Persons with disability	High	Government Ministry
Kenya Youth Empowerment Project	Youth		Hybrid

**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 2.17m

**GNI/capita** | USD3310.00

**Tax to GDP** | 48.5%

**HDI** | 0.50

## Social Assistance Overview

The laws on pensions, work injury, sickness and maternity were enacted in Lesotho after the 1966 independence. The Old-Aged Pension, introduced in 2005, aims to provide elderly people with a source of income. It provides a cash transfer of US\$107.88 per month to all citizens aged 70 and older. The other social assistance programmes available in Lesotho are the Public Assistance and Child Grant Programmes. The former has an objective of improving the living conditions of extremely destitute people while the latter aims to improve the living standards and health status of orphans and vulnerable children. The Child Grant Programme provides a quarterly cash transfer that ranges between US\$77 and US\$162 and the Public Assistance programme provides a monthly cash transfer of US\$68.46. The social assistance spending, which is mainly domestically funded, was 5.55 percent of GDP in 2013, translating to US\$111 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2014	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">No</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1971]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1997]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1992]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1992]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1999]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1995]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1992]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2010]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2005]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Child Grants Programme (CGP)	Children	High	Government Ministry
Old-Age Pension (OAP)	Old age	Medium	Government Ministry
Public Assistance (PA)	Children, old age, persons with disability and other		



# Liberia

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 4.50m

**GNI/capita** | USD720.00

**Tax to GDP** | 20.3%

**HDI** | 0.43

## Social Assistance Overview

Liberia enacted a work injury regulatory framework in 1943, followed by sickness and maternity and old age, disability, and survivors' laws in 1956 and 1975. Two social assistance programmes were introduced in 2010 and these are the Youth, Employment, Skills and the Social Cash Transfer programmes. The latter programme, implemented as a pilot, aims to reduce vulnerability among ultra-poor, labour constrained households and the former provides temporary employment opportunities to improve the employability of 59,800 young people with a daily wage ranging between US\$3 and US\$5. Social assistance spending in Liberia was 1.15 percent of GDP in 2010, translating to social assistance expenditure per poor person of US\$8.98 per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2013	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 4
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1976]	
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [2004]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1982]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2007]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1984]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2007]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1983]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) Signed 2008]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [Signed 2004]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2014]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2012]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Social Cash Transfer Programme (SCT)	Children, old age and persons with disability	High	Non-profit Organisation
Youth, Employment, Skills (YES)	Youth		Hybrid



**Sub-region** | North Africa

**Population** | 6.23m

**GNI/capita** |

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.72

## Social Assistance Overview

Old age, disability, and survivors, sickness and maternity and work injury regulatory frameworks were enacted in Libya well after the 1951 independence. While the social insurance framework is in place, social assistance is currently not operational in Libya.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	4
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2000]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1968]	Social Security(Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No.102) [1975]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1970]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1975]
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]		Employment Injury Benefits Convention, 1964 (No. 121) [1975]
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2000]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1989]	The Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Convention, 1967 (No. 128) [1975]
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1993]	Medical Care and Sickness Benefits Convention, 1969 (No.130) [1975]
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2008]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2004]	
		Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2018]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-

# Madagascar

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 24.23m

**GNI/capita** | USD1410.00

**Tax to GDP** | 9.9%

**HDI** | 0.51

## Social Assistance Overview

The sickness and maternity, family allowances and work injury regulatory frameworks were enacted in Madagascar before independence in 1960, while the old age, disability, and survivor law was introduced in 1969. In 2014, a social assistance programme, named *Le Transfert Monétaire Conditionnel* (Conditional Cash Transfer), was introduced to promote formal schooling among children from poor and vulnerable families. In 2015, a pilot social assistance programme, named *Vatsin'ankohonana*, was introduced. In the same year, the programme, which allows applicants to appeal against selection decisions, had 39,000 participants who received between US\$12.43 and US\$24.86 every month.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2015	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=1&2; 5=1&3; 6=2&3; 7=1,2&3; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2003]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1969]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1964]
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [Signed 1991]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1971]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1992]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [Signed 2009]	
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2005]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1989]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [Signed 2014]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2015]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2014]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2015]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Le Transfert Monétaire Conditionnel – Conditional Cash Transfer	Children		Government Ministry
Vatsin'ankohonana	Youth and adults	High	Non-profit Organisation

**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 17.57m

**GNI/capita** | USD1130.00

**Tax to GDP** | 15.2%

**HDI** | 0.48

## Social Assistance Overview

Malawi enacted the laws on old age, disability, and survivors, sickness and maternity, and unemployment starting in 2000, 36 years after independence in 1964. Only the work injury regulatory framework was introduced before independence. In 2005, a social assistance programme named Improved Livelihoods through Public Works was introduced to create temporary jobs as a means of income transfer and to build economic infrastructure. As at 2015, the programme had 434,000 household participants receiving a cash transfer of US\$8.25 per quarter. The other social assistance programme operational in Malawi is the *Mchinji* Social Cash Transfer, which aims to reduce poverty, hunger and starvation in all households living in the pilot area who are ultra-poor and at the same time labour constrained. The programme also aims to increase school enrolment and attendance of children living in target group households. As at 2015, the programme had 170,000 households receiving a cash transfer of US\$28.79 every month. Malawi has a national coordination agency, which manages programmes and coordinates government efforts, in place. Social assistance expenditure was 0.41 percent of GDP, translating to social assistance spending per poor person per year of US\$2.08 in 2015.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2008	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1996]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1993]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1989]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1999]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1987]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2005]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2010]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2013]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2009]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Improved Livelihoods Through Public Works	Youth and adults		Hybrid
Mchinji Social Cash Transfer (SCT)	Children, old age and other	Medium	Government Ministry



**Sub-region** | West Africa  
**Population** | 17.47m  
**GNI/capita** | USD1980.00  
**Tax to GDP** | 14.5%  
**HDI** | 0.44

## Social Assistance Overview

Mali introduced laws on sickness and maternity, family allowances and work injury before independence in 1960. The regulatory framework for old age, disability, and survivors was introduced immediately after independence in 1961. A social assistance programme named *Jigisemejiri* (Tree of Hope) was introduced in 2013 as a pilot to provide support to poor households suffering from food insecurity. As at 2015, the programme had 43,613 households receiving a cash transfer of US\$47.35 per month. A national coordination office, which manages programmes and coordinates government efforts, is in place. As at 2016, social assistance expenditure was 0.18 percent of GDP, translating to social assistance spending per poor person per year of US\$2.83.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2002	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2000]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1974]	Maternity Protection Convention, 2000, (No. 183) [2008]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1974]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1981]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [Signed 2009]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1998]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1985]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2005]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2007]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2003]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Jigisemejiri–Tree of Hope	Other	Medium	Hybrid



# Mauritania

**Sub-region** | North Africa

**Population** | 4.18m

**GNI/capita** | USD3690.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.51

## Social Assistance Overview

Mauritania introduced laws on sickness and maternity and work injury before independence in 1960 and laws on old age, disability, and survivors and family allowances were introduced after independence.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2011	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1988]	Social Security(Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No.102) [1968]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1995]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [2004]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1968]
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1987]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2003]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [2001]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2016]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [Signed 2011]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2007]	
		Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2012]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-





# Mauritius

**Sub-region** | East Africa  
**Population** | 24.23m  
**GNI/capita** | USD19940.00  
**Tax to GDP** | 18.3%  
**HDI** | 0.78

## Social Assistance Overview

Laws on family allowances, work injury, and old age, disability, and survivors were enacted in Mauritius before independence in 1968. The regulatory framework on sickness and maternity and national pensions was introduced after independence in 1975 and 1976. Most of the social assistance programmes in Mauritius preceded independence. These include the Basic Invalidity Pension and Carer's Allowances and Guardian's Allowance that were introduced in 1950, both with the objectives of enhancing the welfare, empowerment and integration of the population of persons with disabilities, elderly and other vulnerable groups. In 1951, the Basic Retirement Pension was introduced to provide cash transfers to the elderly, which reached 186,118 participants in 2015. The range of the monthly cash transfer amount is US\$181.43 to US\$1209.55. The Child Allowance was introduced in 1960 and transfers a monthly cash amount between US\$86.69 and US\$92.89. The latest social assistance programme, introduced in 1983, was the Social Aid and Unemployment Hardship Relief that reached, as at 2012, 43,952 participants who do not have income to cover their basic needs. The Government of Mauritius fully funds its social assistance programmes and as at 2014, the social assistance expenditure was 3.44 percent of GDP, translating to social assistance expenditure of US\$27,752.23 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2015	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">No</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1972]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1971]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1992]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1992]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1984]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2017]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2008]		
		Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2010]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Basic Invalidity Pension and Carer's Allowance	Persons with disability	High	Government Ministry
Basic Orphan's Pension	Children	High	Government Ministry
Basic Retirement Pension (Universal Old-Age Pension)	Old age and persons with disability	High	Government Ministry
Basic Widow's Pension	Other	High	Government Ministry
Child's Allowance	Children	High	Government Ministry
Guardian's Allowance	Children		Government Ministry
Inmate's Allowance	Other		Government Ministry
Social Aid & Unemployment Hardship Relief	Other		Government Ministry

# Morocco

**Sub-region** | North Africa

**Population** | 34.80m

**GNI/capita** | USD7610.00

**Tax to GDP** | 23.3 %

**HDI** | 0.65

## Social Assistance Overview

Laws on unemployment, family allowances and work injury were enacted in Morocco before independence in 1956. The regulatory framework on sickness and maternity and old age, disability, and survivors was introduced in 1959. Social assistance started with the introduction of the Cash Transfer for Children in 2008 with an aim of reducing attrition from and dropout rates in schools. In 2014, the programme had 825,000 participants receiving a cash transfer between US\$15.55 and US\$36.28 every month. In 2015, another social assistance programme, the Direct Assistance to Widows in a Precarious Situation with Dependent Children was introduced to improve the living conditions of children and their widowed mothers living in hazardous conditions. The programme started with 47,453 participants. The Government of Morocco fully funds its social assistance programmes and as at 2015, the social assistance expenditure was 0.11 percent of GDP.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union[2017]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1970]	Maternity Protection Convention, 2000, (No. 183) [2011]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [2017]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1979]	
		Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1993]	
		Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1993]	
		International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [1993]	
		Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2009]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Direct Assistance to Widows in a Precarious Situation with Dependent Children (Cash Transfer Programme)	Children, persons living with disability and other		Government Agency
Morocco's Cash Transfer for Children (Tayssir Programme)	Children		Government Agency



# Mozambique

**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 28.01m

**GNI/capita** | USD1170.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.42

## Social Assistance Overview

The work injury regulatory framework was introduced in Mozambique before independence in 1975, while laws on old age, disability and survivors, family allowances and sickness and maternity were enacted after independence. The Programa Subsídio Social Básico (Basic Social Subsidy Programme) marked the beginning of social assistance in Mozambique in 1990. The programme aims to provide basic assistance to extremely poor people who are incapable of working, promote the development of human capital, and improve participants' access to basic social services. In 2015, the programme had 466,063 participant households receiving between US\$21.07 and US\$41.46 every month. The labour-intensive public works programme was introduced in 2012 and paid an average of US\$44.18 per month. In 2015, the social assistance spending was 0.77 percent of GDP, translating to social assistance expenditure of US\$6.47 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2016	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">No</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1983]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]		
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1989]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1998]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1997]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2005]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1994]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2008]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2013]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2013]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2012]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Programa Subsídio Social Básico–Basic Social Subsidy Programme	Children, old age and persons with disability	High	Government Ministry
Labour-Intensive Public Work	Youth and adults		Hybrid

**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 2.43m

**GNI/capita** | USD10520.00

**Tax to GDP** | 33.4%

**HDI** | 0.64

## Social Assistance Overview

The regulatory framework on old age, disability and survivors, work injury, family allowances and sickness and maternity were all enacted in Namibia before independence in 1990. This is also true for almost all social assistance programmes in Namibia except for the Disability Grant that started in 1995. The Old-Age Pension is the oldest social assistance programme in Namibia. It aims to prevent poverty by providing income security to the elderly population. In 2010, the programme had 150,000 participants. In 2014, the monthly cash transfer received by the participants was valued at US\$103.46. The Child Maintenance Grant and Foster Care Grant began in 1960 and as at 2015, the programme paid a minimum of US\$43.65 every month to support disabled children under the age of 16 and care for children under foster parenting, respectively. Namibia has a national coordination agency in place that is responsible for managing programmes and coordinating government efforts. The Government of Namibia fully funds its social assistance programmes and as at 2014, the social assistance expenditure was 3.11 percent of GDP, translating to social assistance spending of US\$0.75 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	7
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,2&3; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1982]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1994]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1992]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2004]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1992]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2008]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2009]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2007]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Child Maintenance Grant	Children	High	Government Ministry
Disability Grant	Persons with disability	High	Government Ministry
Foster Care Grant (or Foster Parent Grant)	Children	High	Government Ministry
Old-Age Pension	Old age	High	Government Ministry
Place of Safety Allowance	Children		Government Ministry
Special Maintenance Grant	Children and adults		Government Ministry

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 19.90m

**GNI/capita** | USD950.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.35

## Social Assistance Overview

Niger introduced family allowances and sickness and maternity laws before independence in 1960, while laws on work injury and old age, disability and survivors were introduced after independence. In 2011, Niger introduced a social assistance programme named the Filet de Protection Sociale (Niger Safety Net Project). The programme, which aims to address food insecurity, has two components: food security; and cash for work. The former component transferred a monthly cash amount of US\$45 to participating households and the latter provides a daily cash transfer of US\$4.67. Social assistance expenditure was 0.14 percent of GDP in 2016, translating to social assistance spending of US\$1.14 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2011	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">Yes</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution <span style="float: right;">5</span>
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			<b>NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other</b>

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1967]	Social Security(Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No.102) [1966]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1986]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [2014]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1996]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1999]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2008]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2009]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Niger Safety Net Project–Filet de Protection Sociale	Youth, adults and other		Hybrid



# Nigeria

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 18.12m

**GNI/capita** | USD5900.00

**Tax to GDP** | 1.5%

**HDI** | 0.53

## Social Assistance Overview

The work injury regulatory framework was enacted in Nigeria before independence in 1960, while laws on sickness and maternity as well as old age, disability and survivors were introduced after independence. In 2007, Nigeria introduced a pilot social assistance programme named In Care of the Poor, with the objective of reducing vulnerabilities and stopping intergenerational transmission of poverty among the poorest households. The programme, which reached 22,000 household participants, had a minimum monthly cash amount of US\$18.8 and maximum of US\$62.65. In 2012, a Community Services Women and Youth Employment programme was introduced and reached 123,049 individual participants with a monthly transfer ranging from US\$41.32 to US\$137.72. In the same year, a Maternal and Child Health programme started with the objective of improving maternal and child health through an incentive-based programme. The programme had 26,461 participants in 2015. Social assistance expenditure in 2015 was 0.28 percent of GDP, translating to social assistance spending of US\$6.95 per poor person per year.

### Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework

Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes 2016	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 4
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	

### Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments

Regional	International		
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1967]	
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1991]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1993]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1983]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2001]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1985]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2009]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2009]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2010]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

### Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization

Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Ekiti State Social Security Scheme	Old age		Government Ministry
Osun Elderly Persons Scheme	Old age		Government Ministry
In Care of the Poor (COPE)	Children, adult, persons with disability and other	Low	
Community Services Women and Youth Employment (CSWYE)	Youth, adults, persons with disability and other		
Maternal and Child Health (MCH)	Children and other		Hybrid
Child Development Grant Programme	Children and other		Non-profit Organisation
Cash Transfer for Physical Disabled Persons	Persons with disability		Government Ministry



# Republic of the Congo

**Sub-region** | Central Africa

**Population** | 5.00m

**GNI/capita** | USD5840.00

**Tax to GDP** | 9.40%

**HDI** | 0.60

## Social Assistance Overview

The Republic of Congo introduced family allowances and sickness and maternity laws, work injury, and the old age, disability and survivors' law as part of its social insurance system before independence attained in 1960. A social assistance programme, named Lisungi Safety Nets Project, was introduced in 2014 to improve participants' access to health and education services. As a result, Lisungi Safety Nets Project provides conditional cash transfers targeted at households with children and unconditional cash transfers targeted at elderly participants. The minimum and maximum cash transfers made to beneficiaries are US\$36.22 and US\$163 per quarter. The programme had 37,574 participants as of 2015. The project, which is executed by the Government with support from international partners, allows for design and implementation at the local or community level and provides access to a social worker. As of 2015, social assistance expenditure per GDP in Congo was 0.05 percent, which translates to US\$2.32 per poor person, assuming that the social assistance project targets the poor successfully. The Republic of Congo has a national coordination agency in place.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2016	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 7
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2002]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1988]	
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1996]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1983]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981)[1982]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [Signed 2009]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990)[2006]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1982]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003)[2011]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1993]	
	African Youth Charter (2006)[2011]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2017]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention)[2014]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2014]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Lisungi Safety Nets Project	Children, Old age and other	Low	Government Ministry



# Rwanda

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 11.63m

**GNI/capita** | USD1780.00

**Tax to GDP** | 13.7%

**HDI** | 0.50

## Social Assistance Overview

Rwanda enacted regulatory frameworks on old age, disability and survivors as well as work injury before independence in 1962. The sickness and maternity law was introduced after independence. In 1997 and 1998, Rwanda introduced two social assistance programmes named the Demobilisation and Reintegration Programme and the Genocide Survivors Support and Assistance Fund. The Vision 2020 *Umurenge* Programme started in 2008 with the objective of contributing to the country's goal of reducing extreme poverty. The programme has a component of directly supporting poor families without labour capacity and a component of public works to support poor families with labour capacity. The direct transfer component reached 195,501 individual participants in 2014 with a monthly cash amount of US\$53.15 and the public works reached 111,923 household participants in the same year with a daily cash amount of US\$3.80. Rwanda fully funds its social assistance programmes and as at 2015, social assistance expenditure was 1.43 percent of GDP, translating to social assistance spending of US\$17.08 per poor person per year.

### Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework

Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes 2011	Constitutional provision for social protection No
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	

### Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments

Regional	International		
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1975]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1989]
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1975]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1993]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2001]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1981]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2007]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2008]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

### Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization

Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Genocide Survivors Support and Assistance Fund (FARG)	Other		Government Ministry
Rwanda Demobilisation and Reintegration Programme (RDRP)	Other		Government Ministry
Vision 2020 Umurenge Programme (VUP)	Children, youth, adults, old age and persons with disability		Government Ministry



# São Tomé and Príncipe

**Sub-region** | Central Africa

**Population** | 0.20m

**GNI/capita** | USD3130.00

**Tax to GDP** | 14.6%

**HDI** | 0.57

## Social Assistance Overview

The regulatory frameworks on old age, disability and survivors, sickness and maternity as well as work injury were introduced in São Tomé and Príncipe after independence in 1975. São Tomé and Príncipe has a pilot social assistance programme named the *Maes Carenciada* (Needy Mothers' Programme) which had 6,120 individual participants in 2014. The programme targets poor female headed households with three or more children.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2014	Constitutional provision for social protection Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution 1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [2017]	Maternity Protection Convention, 2000, (No. 183) [2017]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [2017]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [Signed 2010]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [2003]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2010]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [Signed 2010]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [2017]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2010]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2015]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Maes Carenciadas	Children		Non-profit Organisation



# Senegal

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 14.98m

**GNI/capita** | USD2380.00

**Tax to GDP** | 19.8%

**HDI** | 0.49

## Social Assistance Overview

Senegal introduced sickness and maternity, work injury and family allowances before independence in 1960 and enacted the old age, disability and survivor law after independence. A social assistance programme named the Conditional Cash Transfer for Orphans and Vulnerable Children was introduced in 2008 to provide support for the education and training of orphans and vulnerable children with a minimum of US\$491.39 and a maximum of US\$1,273.97 every year. The other social assistance programme, the *Programme National de Bourses de Sécurité Familiale*, started in 2013 with the objectives of combating the vulnerability and social exclusion of poor families, reducing extreme poverty and promoting the development of human capital among participants. The programme started with 50,000 household participants receiving an average of US\$109.61 quarterly. These programmes are fully funded by the Government of Senegal. The social assistance expenditure was 0.7 percent of GDP in 2015, translating to social assistance spending of US\$16.79 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2000]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1972]	Social Security(Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No.102) [1962]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1978]	Employment Injury Benefits Convention, 1964 (No. 121) [1966]
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1982]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [Signed 2009]	Maternity Protection Convention, 2000, (No. 183) [2017]
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1998]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1985]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2004]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2009]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [1999]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2011]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2010]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Conditional Cash transfer for Orphans and Vulnerable Children	Children	Low	Non-profit Organisation
Programme National de Bourses de Sécurité Familiale (PNBSF)	Children		Government Ministry



**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 0.97m

**GNI/capita** | USD25670.00

**Tax to GDP** | 28.3%

**HDI** | 0.78

## Social Assistance Overview

Seychelles enacted work injury and old age, disability and survivors' laws before independence in 1976. Family allowances and sickness and maternity laws were introduced after independence. A social assistance programme, the Old Age Pension, was introduced four years after independence and paid a monthly cash transfer of US\$13.42 to participants, with supplement for dependants available under certain conditions for each dependent child and either a spouse, a person caring for the insured, or dependent adult with disability who is not receiving any other transfer. The social assistance expenditure was 2.51 percent of GDP, translating to social assistance spending of US\$36,442.45 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1978]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1991]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1992]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1992]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1992]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1992]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2006]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2011]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [1994]	
		Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2009]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Old Age Pension	Old age	High	Government Ministry

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 7.24m

**GNI/capita** | USD1380.00

**Tax to GDP** | 8.6%

**HDI** | 0.42

## Social Assistance Overview

Sierra Leone enacted the work injury regulatory framework before independence in 1961 and the old age, disability and survivors' law in the last decade and a half. In 2007, a social assistance programme named the Social Safety Net Programme was introduced to support extremely poor households, with participants encouraged to pay particular attention to maternal and child health. The programme had 13,547 individual participants in 2015 and provides a quarterly cash transfer of US\$81.26. In 2010, a Cash for Work programme began operating with the aim of creating employment opportunities in the short term and improving the employability of participants. The programme had 49,993 individual participants receiving between US\$3.75 and US\$4.69 per day. Social assistance spending was 0.25 percent of GDP in 2011, translating to social assistance expenditure of US\$2.13 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2009	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">Yes</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution <span style="float: right;">1</span>
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy			<b>NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other</b>

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1967]	Social Security(Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No.102) [1962]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1994]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1996]	Employment Injury Benefits Convention, 1964 (No. 121) [1966]
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1983]		Maternity Protection Convention, 2000, (No. 183) [2017]
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2002]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1988]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2015]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [Signed 2008]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [Signed 2000]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2010]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2010]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Social Safety Net Programme	Other		
Cash for Work	Youth		Government Ministry

# Somalia

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 13.91m

**GNI/capita** |

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** |

## Social Assistance Overview

Somalia does not have a social assistance programme in place. Generally, social protection is provided largely through clan and religious structures.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1975]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [Signed 1991]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1990]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1985]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [2015]	
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [Signed 1991]		
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2006]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2009]		

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-

# South Africa

**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 55.29m

**GNI/capita** | USD12, 000.00

**Tax to GDP** | 27.3%

**HDI** | 0.67

## Social Assistance Overview

South Africa enacted laws on old age, disability and survivors, sickness and maternity, and work injury before the post-apartheid era in 1994. All social assistance programmes, except for the Child Support Grant and the Expanded Public Works Programme, started operating before 1994. The Older Persons' Grant is the oldest programme, having been first legislated for in 1928 to support older South African citizens who could not support themselves. In 2015, the programme reached 3,194,087 with a monthly cash payment ranging from US\$297.76 to US\$301.95. Three social assistance programmes were introduced in 1946: the Care Dependency, Disability and Foster Child Grants. Of these, Disability has the largest number of participants, at 1,098,018 individuals in 2015, receiving a monthly cash transfer of US\$297.76. In 1998 a Child Support Grant was introduced and as at 2015, it had 11,972,900 individual participants receiving a cash transfer of US\$61.60 every month. The Expanded Public Works Programme started in 2004 to draw significant numbers of unemployed and is accompanied by training. The social assistance programmes allow applicants to appeal against selection decisions. South Africa has a single agency responsible for managing programmes and coordinating government efforts. The Government fully funds the social assistance programmes and in 2015, social assistance spending was 3.17 percent of GDP, translating to social assistance expenditure of US\$966.02 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	No	Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy	No	Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	2
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	No	NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1998]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [2001]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [2015]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1996]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1995]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2000]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1995]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2004]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2007]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2009]		

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Care dependency grant	Children with disability	High	Government Department
Child support grant	Children under 18 years	High	Government Department
Disability grant	People living with disability (PWD)	High	Government Department
Foster child grant	Children	High	Government Department
Grant-in-Aid	Elderly People and PWD	High	Government Department
Older Person's Grant	Elderly people	High	Government Department
War Veterans' Grant	Other		Government Department
Expanded Public Works	Youth and adults		Government Department



# South Sudan

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 11.88m

**GNI/capita** | USD1700.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.42

## Social Assistance Overview

South Sudan does not have a social assistance programme.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	7
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=1&2; 5=1&3; 6=2&3; 7=1,2&3; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2011]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [2015]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [Signed 2013]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [2015]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [2013]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [Signed 2013]		
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2013]		
	African Youth Charter (2006) [Signed 2013]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2013]		

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
-	-	-	-



**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 38.65m

**GNI/capita** | USD4150.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.49

## Social Assistance Overview

Sudan introduced the work injury law before independence in 1956 and laws on old age, disability and survivors as well as sickness and maternity were introduced after independence. A social assistance programme named the Social Support Project started operating in Sudan in 2011 with the objective of mitigating the effects of a fiscal adjustment programme on the bottom 60 percent of the population. In 2015, the programme had 450,000 household participants receiving a cash transfer amount of US\$45.43 per month. *Zakat* is the most important source of social protection in Sudan, with at least 19300 *Zakat* communities covering millions of individuals.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	4
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2000]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1977]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1993]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1986]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1980]	
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2005]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2009]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2008]		
	African Youth Charter (2006) [Signed 2008]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2012]		

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Social Support Project		Medium	Government Ministry

# Tanzania

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 53.88m

**GNI/capita** | USD2610.00

**Tax to GDP** | 10.9%

**HDI** | 0.53

## Social Assistance Overview

The regulatory framework covering work injury was set up in Tanzania before independence in 1964. In 1964 laws on old age, disability and survivors were enacted and legislation on sickness and maternity was introduced after independence. A social assistance programme named the Community-Based Conditional Cash Transfer came into effect in 2009 with the aim of testing how a conditional cash transfer programme could employ a community-driven development approach among highly vulnerable populations. The programme had 13,000 individual participants in 2013 and provided a cash transfer ranging from US\$10.56 to US\$63.36 bimonthly. In 2013, a Productive Social Safety Net Programme was introduced with two components, conditional cash transfer and public works. The former component provided a bimonthly cash transfer ranging from US\$19.56 to US\$40.48 and the latter transferred a daily wage of US\$2.38. Both components of the programmes allow for participants to appeal against selection decisions. Tanzania has a unified registry and national coordination agency responsible for coordinating government efforts and managing programmes. Social assistance expenditure was 0.31 percent of GDP in 2016, translating to social assistance spending of US\$5.38 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	8
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	
Other	Yes		

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1972]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty Establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1976]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1984]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2003]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1985]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2007]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2012]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2010]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2009]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Community-Based Conditional Cash Transfer	Children and old age	High	Government Ministry
Productive Social Safety Net (PSSN) Programme: Cash transfers	Children, youth, adults, old age and persons with disability	High	Government Ministry

**Sub-region** | West Africa

**Population** | 7.42m

**GNI/capita** | USD1310.00

**Tax to GDP** | 21.8%

**HDI** | 0.49

## Social Assistance Overview

Togo introduced laws on sickness and maternity and family allowances before independence in 1960, and laws on old age, disability and survivors and work injury after independence. In 2013, a social assistance programme named *Travaux à Haute Intensité de Main d'Oeuvre* (THIMO)–Labour-Intensive Public Works–was started to increase participants' resilience by providing them with employment and income-generating opportunities. The programme had 12,590 individual participants as at 2015, receiving a minimum of US\$6.44 and maximum of US\$10.73 biweekly. In 2013 a Cash Transfer Programme for Vulnerable Children in Northern Togo was introduced and as at 2015, the programme had 14,828 individual participants.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	1
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2000]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1972]	Social Security(Minimum Standards) Convention, 1952 (No.102) [2013]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1998]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1984]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1982]	Optional protocol to the Economic, Cultural & Social Rights (2008) (no 3)(a) [Signed 2009]	
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2005]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1983]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [1998]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2008]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [Signed 2001]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2011]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2011]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Cash Transfer Programme for Vulnerable Children in Northern Togo	Children and other		Government Ministry
Travaux à Haute Intensité de Main d'Oeuvre (THIMO)–Labour-Intensive Public Works	Youth and adults		Government Ministry

# Tunisia

**Sub-region** | North Africa

**Population** | 11.28m

**GNI/capita** | USD11090.00

**Tax to GDP** | 21.1%

**HDI** | 0.73

## Social Assistance Overview

The work injury and family allowances regulatory frameworks were enacted in Tunisia before independence in 1956, while that of unemployment, sickness and maternity and old age, disability and survivors was enacted after independence. Tunisia introduced a social assistance programme named the Programme National d'Aide aux Familles Nécessiteuses in 1986, aiming to provide financial aid to the most vulnerable families. In 2015, the programme had 235,000 household participants receiving a monthly cash transfer of between US\$240.04 and US\$288.46. The programme is fully funded by the Government, which spent 0.57 percent of GDP on social assistance in 2015, translating to social assistance expenditure of US\$1,141.40 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework	
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection	Yes
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution	4
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other	

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1967]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1965]
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1994]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1969]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1983]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [Signed 1995]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1985]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2015]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1992]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2011]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [Signed 2012]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Programme National d'Aide aux Familles Nécessiteuses (PNAFN)	Children, Old age and persons living with disability	High	Government Agency



# Uganda

**Sub-region** | East Africa

**Population** | 40.14m

**GNI/capita** | USD1770.00

**Tax to GDP** | 10.2%

**HDI** | 0.49

## Social Assistance Overview

Uganda enacted a work injury regulatory framework before its 1962 independence, while a framework covering sickness and maternity and old age, disability and survivors was enacted after independence. Uganda introduced two social assistance programmes—the Livelihood Investment Support Component and Uganda Social Assistance Grants for Empowerment—in 2009 and 2010 respectively. The former aims to generate income-earning opportunities for participants as well as improve their access to services and had 123,153 individual participants in 2015 receiving a cash transfer of US\$22.96 bimonthly. The latter aims to reduce chronic poverty and improve the conditions of Uganda's poorest and entails a daily wage of US\$4.61. Social assistance expenditure was 0.48 percent of GDP in 2012, translating to spending of US\$8.53 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2015	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">No</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Treaty for the Establishment of the EAC (1999: Article 120(c))</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1980]	
<i>EAC's Strategic Plan for Gender, Youth, Children, Social Protection and Community Development (2010)</i>	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1991]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1987]	
<i>EAC Social Development Policy Framework (2013)</i>	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]		
<i>EAC Child Policy (2016)</i>	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1994]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1985]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2010]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2008]	International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, Articles. (1990)(no 13) [1995]	
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2010]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2008]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Uganda Social Assistance Grants for Empowerment (SAGE)	Old age	High	Government Ministry
Livelihood Investment Support Component	Youth and adults		Government Ministry





# Western Sahara\*

**Sub-region** | North Africa

## Social Assistance Overview

**Population** | 0.53m

**GNI/capita** |

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** |

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework		
Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy		Constitutional provision for social protection
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy		

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
<i>Tunis Declaration on Social Justice in the Arab Region</i>	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2000]		
	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]		
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [Signed 1992]		
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [Signed 2006]		
	African Youth Charter (2006) [Signed 2010]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2013]		

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency

\*Social assistance programmes and international instruments to which Morocco is a Party are applied in the part of the Territory of Western Sahara under Moroccan control.

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**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 16.10m

**GNI/capita** | USD3800.00

**Tax to GDP** | 16.1%

**HDI** | 0.56

## Social Assistance Overview

The work injury regulatory framework was enacted in Zambia before its 1964 independence. Legislation covering sickness and maternity and old age, disability and survivors came into law after independence. Zambia introduced a social assistance programme, the Public Welfare Assistance scheme, in 2000. The programme's objective is to provide assistance to the most vulnerable population so that individuals can meet their basic needs and have capacity to overcome poverty and vulnerability. In 2015, the programme had 236,013 individual participants receiving a yearly transfer between US\$2 and US\$20. In 2003, another social assistance programme named the Social Cash Transfer Programme started with the aim of reducing extreme poverty and generating information on the feasibility, costs and benefits of a social cash transfer scheme as a component of a social protection strategy for Zambia. The programme had 180,261 household participants in 2015. The bimonthly cash transfer ranged between US\$2.50 and US\$56.03 in 2012. Zambia has a unified registry and there is in place a national coordination agency responsible for coordinating government efforts and managing programmes. The social assistance spending was 0.03 percent of GDP in 2011, translating to spending of US\$0.66 per poor person per year.

### Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework

Policies/Strategies	Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes 2014	Constitutional provision for social protection No
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy		Social protection objectives contained in the constitution
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	

### Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments

Regional	International		
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1972]	
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1992]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1984]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1984]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [2008]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1985]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2006]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1991]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2009]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaced Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2011]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2010]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

### Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization

Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Social Cash Transfer Programme	Children, old age, persons with disability and other	Medium	Government Ministry
Public Welfare Assistance Scheme	Children, old age and persons with disability		Hybrid



# Zimbabwe

**Sub-region** | Southern Africa

**Population** | 15.78m

**GNI/capita** | USD1930.00

**Tax to GDP** |

**HDI** | 0.51

## Social Assistance Overview

The work injury regulatory framework was enacted in Zimbabwe before its 1980 independence. The sickness and maternity and old age, disability and survivors' regulatory frameworks were enacted after independence. In 1988, Zimbabwe introduced Public Assistance Monthly Maintenance Allowances to provide relief to individuals and households in distress. The programme had 6,688 participants in 2015 who were provided with a monthly cash amount of US\$20. In 2011, Harmonised Social Cash Transfer started operating to enable participating households to increase their consumption to a level above the food poverty line, reducing the number of ultra-poor households and helping participants to avoid risky coping strategies such as child labour and early marriage. The programme, which provides access to a social worker, had 52,049 participating households as at 2011, receiving a cash transfer ranging between US\$20 and US\$50 bimonthly. Zimbabwe has a national coordination agency responsible for managing programmes and coordinating government efforts. The social assistance expenditure was 0.11 percent of GDP in 2015, translating to spending of US\$5.31 per poor person per year.

Social Assistance Policies and National Legal Framework			
Policies/Strategies		Year Introduced	Legal framework
Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes	2016	Constitutional provision for social protection <span style="float: right;">Yes</span>
Social Assistance Policy/Strategy			Social protection objectives contained in the constitution <span style="float: right;">4</span>
Social Assistance in Social Protection Policy/Strategy	Yes		<b>NB: 1=Health Coverage; 2=Reasonable standard of living; 3=Food security; 4=162; 5=163; 6=263; 7=1,263; 8=other</b>

Ratified Regional and International Social Assistance related Instruments			
Regional		International	
Sub-regional Communities	African Union	United Nations	International Labour Organization
Protocol on Employment and Labour	Constitutive Act of the African Union [2001]	UN International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination. (1966) (No 2) [1991]	The Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention, 1962 (No. 118) [1965]
Code on Social Security	Treaty establishing the African Economic Union [1991]	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996) [1991]	
	African Charter on Human and People's Right (1981) [1986]		
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990) [1995]	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1966) [1991]	
	African Charter on the Rights of Women in Africa (2003) [2008]	Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) [1990]	
	African Youth Charter (2006) [2009]		
	African Union Convention for the Protection and Assistance of Internally Displaces Persons in Africa (Kampala Convention) [2013]	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) [2013]	

NB: [ ] is the year in which the country ratified the instruments

Social Assistance Programmes and Institutionalization			
Name	Target Group	Centralization	Executing Agency
Harmonised Social Cash Transfer (HSCT)	Children, old age and persons with disability	Medium	Government Department
Public Assistance Monthly Maintenance Allowances	Old age, persons with disability and other		Government Department



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EXES

## Annex A.1 Definitions of social protection in African national policies and strategies<sup>14</sup>

Benin:	<i>“The set of public measures and private measures implemented to protect the population against social risks and to guarantee their access to essential services” (Plan Stratégique, 2012).</i>
Burkina Faso:	<i>“Set of public interventions that help households and individuals to better manage risks and reduce their vulnerability and poverty by providing them with better access to social services and employment. Social protection is an investment that supports the development of human capital and economic growth and not a form of assistance or relief” (PNPS, 2012).</i>
Burundi:	<i>“Social protection can be defined as a set of public or private measures aimed at reducing poverty and economic and social vulnerabilities. This set of measures helps to ensure minimum income security for the population, to facilitate access to basic services and to help households better manage the risks that they confront” (PNPS, 2011).</i>
Cabo Verde:	<i>“A set of public policies aiming: i) to help individuals, families and groups to improve their risk management, and ii) to provide support to people living in poverty” (EDPS, 2005).</i>
Central African Republic:	<i>“Allows access to the population and especially vulnerable groups to basic social services” (PNPS, 2012).</i>
Chad:	<i>“A range of public investments and initiatives, both formal and informal, that directly address risk, vulnerability and chronic poverty” (SNPS, 2014).</i>
Comoros:	<i>“Social protection refers to interventions that help individuals, households and poor communities to better manage risks to reduce their vulnerability. It is a matter of ... giving the vulnerable population the means to become the artisans of their own well-being” (PNPS, 2014).</i>
Côte d’Ivoire:	<i>“All public and private measures (with a public interest mission) aimed at reducing the vulnerability of populations to the risks and impact of shocks, avoiding the use of harmful adaptation strategies and guaranteeing minimum levels of human dignity” (SNPS, 2013).</i>
Democratic Republic of the Congo:	<i>“Social Protection refers to all mechanisms (i) for prevention, (ii) collective protection and care, and (iii) promotion or social recovery enabling individuals and households to cope with the consequences of social, financial and other risks, economic or other factors that could compromise their dignity or survival. Social Protection enables individuals, households and communities to survive and ‘get back on their feet’ when they are hit by risks, and on the other hand to reduce inequality in the risks of life, ensuring a minimum of decent living conditions for their integration into society” (SNPS, 2016).</i>

<sup>14</sup> Quotations include translations from French or Portuguese where appropriate.

Ethiopia:	<i>“A set of formal and informal interventions that aim to reduce social and economic risks, vulnerabilities and deprivations for all people and facilitates equitable growth” (NSPP, 2012).</i>
Gabon:	<i>“All the mechanisms of social foresight enabling individuals to cope with the consequences of life’s risks, in particular maternity, old age, disability, sickness, family expenses, insecurity, poverty or social exclusion” (CPS, 2017).</i>
The Gambia:	<i>“Transformative policies and programmes designed to reduce poverty and population vulnerability by promoting efficient labour markets, diminishing individuals’ exposure to risk, and equipping people with the means to protect themselves from hazards and the interruption or loss of income” (NSPP, 2015).</i>
Ghana:	<i>“A range of actions carried out by the state and other parties in response to vulnerability and poverty, which seek to guarantee relief for those sections of the population who for any reason are not able to provide for themselves” (NSPP, 2015).</i>
Kenya:	<i>“Policies and actions, including legislative measures, that enhance the capacity of and opportunities for the poor and vulnerable to improve and sustain their lives, livelihoods, and welfare, that enable income-earners and their dependants to maintain a reasonable level of income through decent work, and that ensure access to affordable healthcare, social security, and social assistance” (NSPP, 2011).</i>
Liberia:	<i>“A package of policies and programs, implemented as part of public action, that provide income or consumption transfers to the poorest, protect the most vulnerable against livelihood risks, and improve access to economic opportunities, with the aim of reducing food insecurity and deprivation, while increasing resilience of vulnerable households and groups to shocks” (NSPPS, 2013).</i>
Madagascar:	<i>“Social protection is a set of interventions that can prevent risks, cope with various shocks (natural, socio-economic, cultural, political, ...) and ensure a minimum income security and accessibility to services social services, especially the most vulnerable groups” (PNPS, 2015).</i>
Malawi:	<i>“All public and private initiatives that provide income or consumption transfers to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks, and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalised, with the overall objective of reducing ultra-poverty as well as the economic and social vulnerability of poor, vulnerable and marginalised groups” (SPS, 2008).</i>
Mali:	<i>“All the measures by which society intends to protect citizens against social risks. It includes social security, social assistance and social action” (PNPS, 2002).</i>

Mauritania:	<i>“A range of public investments and initiatives, both formal and informal, that directly address risk, vulnerability and chronic poverty” (SNPS, 2011).</i>
Mauritius:	<i>“Interventions to assist vulnerable groups of society to manage risks” (NSPS, 2010).</i>
Niger:	<i>“Social protection encompasses a range of public investments and initiatives, both formal and informal, that can directly address risks, vulnerability and chronic poverty” (PNPS, 2011).</i>
Nigeria:	<i>“A mix of policies and programmes designed for individuals and households throughout the life cycle to prevent and reduce poverty and socio-economic shocks by promoting and enhancing livelihoods and a life of dignity” (NSPP, 2016).</i>
Rwanda:	<i>“A set of public and private initiatives that provide income or consumption transfers to the poor, protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks and enhance the social status and rights of the marginalised” (NSPS, 2011).</i>
São Tomé and Príncipe:	<i>“A set of public and private policies and programmes aiming to prevent, to reduce and to eliminate socioeconomic vulnerabilities related to poverty and deprivation...in order to promote resilience, equity and opportunity” (NSPS, 2014).</i>
Senegal:	<i>“Public interventions intended to help individuals, households, and communities ... to smooth out irregularities in income and consumption levels and reduce the probability of devastating welfare losses plunging people into poverty” (SNPS, 2006).</i>
Tanzania	<i>“Traditional family and community support structures, and interventions by state and non-state actors that support individuals, households and communities to prevent, manage, and overcome the risks threatening their present and future security and well-being, and to embrace opportunities for their development and for social and economic progress in Tanzania” (NSPF, 2008).</i>
Uganda:	<i>“Public and private interventions to address risks and vulnerabilities that expose individuals to income insecurity and social deprivation, leading to undignified lives” (NSPP, 2015).</i>
Zambia:	<i>“Policies and practices that protect and promote the livelihoods and welfare of people suffering from critical levels of poverty and deprivation and/or are vulnerable to risks and shocks” (NSPP, 2014).</i>
Zanzibar:	<i>“A set of actions by government and non-government actors, that aim to improve the quality of life in Zanzibar by reducing poverty, vulnerability and deprivation, providing protection against shocks, improving access to essential services, enhancing social inclusion, and promoting equal rights and opportunities for all” (SPP, 2013).</i>
Zimbabwe:	<i>“A set of interventions whose objective is to reduce social and economic risk and vulnerability and alleviate poverty and deprivation” (NSPPF, 2016).</i>

## Annex A.2 Definitions of social assistance in African national policies and strategies<sup>15</sup>

Burundi:	<i>“Non-contributory social assistance programs for the poorest and most vulnerable, such as cash transfer programs, labour-intensive public works, and targeted subsidies to the ‘needy’ for access to health care” (PNPS, 2011).</i>
Comoros:	<i>“Social safety nets in the areas of labour-intensive work, schooling, the reduction of poverty among rural households by cash transfers and the generalisation of the fight against malnutrition of children and pregnant and lactating women” (PNPS, 2014).</i>
Democratic Republic of the Congo:	<i>“Conditional or automatic transfers, which are paid directly to beneficiaries (individuals or households), in cash or in kind: (i) for cash transfers, eligible beneficiaries receive a payment, or to purchase a service not yet returned, either to reimburse a service already rendered, (ii) transfers in kind, eligible beneficiaries have access to quality services provided by approved providers, either at subsidised prices or free of charge” (SNPS, 2016).</i>
Ethiopia:	<i>“Social Assistance: non-contributory transfers to poor people by the government and others. This would include cash or food transfers, remittances and gifts, fee waivers and provision” (NSPP, 2012).</i>
The Gambia:	<i>“Predictable and long-term social assistance measures targeted at extremely poor households and vulnerable individuals [to] support them in meeting their daily food requirements and essential needs [and] to protect against risks throughout the life-cycle ... such as fee waivers for health and education scholarships” (NSPP, 2015).</i>
Kenya:	<i>“In Kenya, the term ‘social assistance’ is used to refer to non-contributory transfer programmes aimed at preventing the poor or those who are vulnerable to shocks from falling below a certain poverty level ... covering a broad range of actions including cash transfers, food aid, affordable health charges, child protection services, and responses to life-threatening emergencies to enhance coping mechanisms of vulnerable groups. ... Informal community support and extended families provide a significant form of social assistance in Kenya” (NSPP, 2011).</i>
Lesotho:	<i>“Current social assistance programmes include the child grant, school feeding, old age pension, and public assistance” (NSPS, 2014).</i>
Liberia:	<i>“Social assistance programs: These programs are non-contributory and should include predictable cash transfers [such as social pensions, child and disability grants, income support to poor households and cash for work programs] as well as in kind transfers to the poorest and most vulnerable households, individuals and groups; fee waivers that reduce barriers to accessing essential social services; and a national school feeding program ... In some literature these are referred to as ‘safety nets.’” (NSPPS, 2013).</i>

<sup>15</sup> Quotations include translations from French or Portuguese where appropriate.

- Madagascar: *“These are social transfers or non-contributory social safety nets that target the fringe of very poor and/or vulnerable populations at higher risk. This programme aims to provide assistance in cash or in kind so that it can meet their basic needs specifically basic consumption. In general, they are seen as a support that can both strengthen the human capital of households affected by shocks and prevent them from falling into deeper poverty. This assistance can take two forms, namely conditional and unconditional cash transfers” (PNPS, 2015).*
- Mali: *“All the assistance measures provided by the State and public authorities, which target people in a situation of need whose resources are insufficient. It is complementary to the other devices of social protection” (PNPS, 2002).*
- Mauritius: *“Social assistance programmes (also referred to as safety net programmes) are designed to help the poor, vulnerable individuals and households cope with temporary or chronic poverty by providing income support and access to basic services ... include a variety of non-contributory programmes such as cash and in-kind transfers, fee waivers, active labour market programmes, community based programmes, and price subsidies” (SPS, 2010).*
- Mozambique: *“Social assistance programmes such as cash transfers, in-kind transfers, fee waivers to support access to basic and social services” (NBSSS, 2016).*
- Niger: *“It generally involves regular, predictable transfers (in cash or in kind, including fee waivers or general price subsidies) from government and non-government entities to individuals and/or households. These transfers, which may include, among others, family allowances and social pensions, aim to reduce poverty and vulnerability, increase access to basic services and ensure a minimum of economic well-being. Social safety nets are part of this social assistance” (PNPS, 2011).*
- Sierra Leone: *“Social assistance is ... the non-contributory, regular and predictable cash or in-kind transfers made to the vulnerable in society. It is financed mostly by the Government and Non-Governmental Organisations ... It caters mostly for the most vulnerable in communities i.e. the sick, disabled, elderly, homeless etc.” (PFSP, 2009).*
- Uganda: *“Social assistance to vulnerable children, persons with disabilities and the destitute” (NSPP, 2015).*
- Zambia: *“...social assistance interventions targeting specific categories of beneficiaries. These have taken the form of non-contributory transfers either in cash or in-kind, fee waivers, and subsidies with a view of reducing poverty. These interventions specifically target those who lack the inherent capacity to work” (NSPP, 2014).*



Zimbabwe:

*“Social assistance is a non-contributory form of social security which is financed from government revenue and in some cases with support from non-state actors such as development partners, civil society organisations and the private sector. Because of limited resources, it is means-tested in order to ensure that the most deserving beneficiaries receive cash or in-kind benefits. ... Access to social assistance is a basic human right enshrined in international human rights instruments” (NSPPF, 2016).*

## Annex B.1 Type of authority coordinating social assistance, by country

Country	Presidency, vice-presidency or presidential delegate	Ministry of Social Protection, Social Development or similar	Other Ministry	National Committee/ Council, or other Inter-Ministerial	Date of creation
Algeria					
Angola		Ministry of Social Action, Family and Women's Promotion			2017
Benin				Comité Sociale de Protection Sociale, chaired by the Ministry of Development	2013
Botswana	All social assistance programmes coordinated by Office of the President.	Ministry of Local Development – Department of Social Protection			
Burkina Faso				National Permanent Secretariat for Social Protection, chaired by the Prime Minister	2013
Central African Republic			Ministry of Planning and Economy		
Chad		Ministry of Women, Social Action and National Solidarity			
Congo (D.R.)				Social Protection Thematic Group	
Egypt		Ministry of Social Solidarity		Ministerial Committee for Social Justice (under Prime Minister)	
Ethiopia		Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs	Ministry of Agriculture		
Ghana		Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection			2013
Kenya		Ministry of East Africa Community, Labour and Social protection – State Department of Social Protection			2010 (Social Protection Secretariat)
Lesotho		Ministry of Social Development; Ministry of Finance oversees old age pensions		Cabinet Social Protection Committee	2016
Madagascar		Ministry of Population, Social Protection and Promotion of Women			
Nigeria				National Social Safety Net Coordination Office under the Vice President	2016

Country	Presidency, vice-presidency or presidential delegate	Ministry of Social Protection, Social Development or similar	Other Ministry	National Committee/ Council, or other Inter-Ministerial	Date of creation
Niger				Consultative Interministerial Committee on Social Protection	
Malawi			Poverty Reduction and Social protection division at the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Development		
Morocco			Ministry of General Affairs and Governance		
Mozambique		Ministry of Women and Social Welfare			
Rwanda			Ministry of Local Development		
Senegal				Délégation Générale à la Protection Sociale et la Solidarité Nationale (under President's office)	2012
South Africa		Department of Social Development			1937 (Social Welfare), renamed in 2000
Tanzania	Vice Presidency (TASAF)	Office of the Prime Minister Labour Department – Social Protection Unit			2017
Tunisia					
Uganda		Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development			
Zambia		Ministry of Community Development, Mother and Child Health			
Zimbabwe		Ministry of Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare			

Source: Compiled from several sources, including Honorati, Gentilini and Yermtsov 2015.

## Annex B.2 Social assistance executing agencies and coordination instruments, by country

Country	Single executing agency?	Common administrative tools such as integrated information systems?
Benin	Secretariat for Decentralized Community Driven Services	Yes. The Unique Registry is being developed.
Botswana	No. The Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development houses the Department of Social Protection and is primarily tasked with the delivery of social assistance programmes. The Department of Social Protection is mandated to coordinate, monitor and evaluate delivery of social protection programmes. But other ministries deliver social assistance programmes as well.	No.
Cabo Verde		Yes. The Unique Registry.
Djibouti		Yes. The Unique Register, a social registry, is being developed.
Egypt		Yes. The Unified National Registry, a social registry, is being developed.
Ethiopia	No. The Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs runs the registry and direct cash transfers. The Ministry of Agriculture runs the Expanded Public Works Programme.	Yes. A National Household Registry (social registry) and Central Social Protection Management Information System (acting as an integrated beneficiary registry and supporting implementation) exist.
Ghana	No. The Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection has a Social Protection Directorate which serves as the secretariat. An Interministerial National Steering Committee serves as a subcommittee and the Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare also takes on executing functions.	Yes. The Ghana National Household Registry, a social registry, is being developed.
Kenya	Partially. The Social Assistance Unit under the Ministry of East Africa Community, Labour and Social Protection manages the Kenya National Safety Net Programme, the Cash Transfer Programme to Persons with Severe Disabilities, the Cash Transfer for Orphaned and Vulnerable Children and the Older Persons Cash Transfer since 2016. However, it does not manage the Hunger Safety Net Programme.	Yes. The Single Registry hosted at the Ministry of East Africa Community, Labour and Social Protection. It provides an overview of data across five main programmes.
Lesotho	No. The Ministry of Social Development and the Ministry of Finance oversee different programmes.	Yes. The National Information System for Social Assistance. It is used by several programmes for integrated targeting and delivery, but not for the flagship Social Pension programme.
Malawi	No. But the Poverty Reduction and Social Protection Division in the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development is starting to provide guidance on streamlining implementation.	Yes. The Universal Beneficiary Registry, a social registry that houses data on the poorest 50% of Malawians. It is currently undergoing data collection. It has not yet been agreed which institution will host the registry.
Mauritius	Yes. Ministry of Social Security, National Solidarity and Institutional Reform.	Yes. The Social Register of Mauritius acts as a social registry and an integrated beneficiary registry. It combines data across social assistance and insurance.

Country	Single executing agency?	Common administrative tools such as integrated information systems?
Mozambique	Yes. The National Institute of Social Action (INAS) subordinate to the Ministry of Gender, Child and Social Action is the agency responsible for delivery of programmes and strategies with direct budget provided through the Ministry of Finance.	Yes. The INAS social registry (not yet launched/ operational).
Rwanda		Yes. The Integrated Management Information System is being developed.
Seychelles	Yes. The Agency for Social Protection was launched to ensure the provision of comprehensive social security services and social relief following the merger of the Social Security Fund and the Social Welfare Agency. It was established in 2012.	Yes. The Integrated Management Information System.
South Africa	Yes. The South African Social Security Agency is responsible for the management, implementation and payment of grants nationally. It was established in 2006.	Yes. The SOCPEN legacy system manages grant applications and disbursements. It started in the 1930s.
Tanzania	No. But there is a TASAF management unit.	Yes. The TASAF social registry is being developed.
Zambia		Yes. The Single Registry of Beneficiaries is being developed.
Zimbabwe		Yes. The Integrated Social Protection Management Information System is being developed.

**Source:** Compiled from several sources, including Honorati, Gentilini and Yemtsov 2015. Information updated through 2016.

## Annex C.1 Public expenditure ratio by sub-region, 2000–2012

Sub-region*	Country	Public Expenditure as % of GDP (PE/GDP)			PE per capita (US\$)
		2000	2005	2012	2012
NA (4)	Algeria	29.8	28.93	3718**	4959
	Egypt	27.73	25.91	31.81	3346
	Morocco	30.36	34.45	33.54	2354
	Tunisia	26.65	25.16	24.68	2613
	<b>Sub-region avg.</b>	<b>28.64</b>	<b>28.61</b>	<b>30.01</b>	<b>3318</b>
EA (7)	Ethiopia	26.04	24.58	19.55**	245
	Kenya	17.89	19.79	26.9	713
	Mauritius	22.08	22.99	23.57	4006
	Rwanda			26.16	396
	Seychelles	44.99	41.69	33.27	7174
	Tanzania	17.73	19.49		
	Uganda	17.65	17.98	16.58	305
	<b>Sub-region avg.</b>	<b>24.39</b>	<b>24.42</b>	<b>25.29</b>	<b>2140</b>
CA (4)	Burundi	28.76	34.68	34.77	263
	Central African Republic	16.02	17.28	17.41	166
	Congo	25.56	21.95		
	D.R Congo	10.02	34.43	29.97**	
	<b>Sub-region avg.</b>	<b>20.09</b>	<b>27.08</b>	<b>26.09</b>	<b>215</b>
WA (12)	Benin	19.4	21.32	20.99	396
	Burkina Faso	22.3	22.17	26.64	413
	Cape Verde		38.08		
	Côte d'Ivoire	17.77	18.77	24.49	676
	Ghana	17.29	19.7	26.44**	978
	Guinea-Bissau	2.54	2.17	1.94	28
	Liberia	19.89	12.4	33.76	265
	Mali	23.41	23.77	17.1	314
	Niger	17.51	20.17	28.68	252
	Nigeria	16.23	13.1	10.2	555
	Senegal	18.13	23.47	29.22	651
	Togo	19.44	19.75	26.74	347
<b>Sub-region avg.</b>	<b>17.63</b>	<b>19.57</b>	<b>21.98</b>	<b>443</b>	
SA (9)	Angola	48.43	26.77	33.28	2033
	Botswana	39.07	34.74	39.38	5571
	Eswatini	27.41	33.64	32.86	2552
	Lesotho	54.94	49.41	62.32	1502
	Malawi	16.38	23.71	22.95**	243
	Mozambique			35.05	355
	Namibia	31.89	28.35	31.76**	2900
	South Africa	25.49	26.52	30.68	3819
	Zambia	30.99	29.54	21.03**	751
<b>Sub-region average</b>	<b>34.33</b>	<b>31.59</b>	<b>38.93</b>	<b>2192</b>	
<b>Unweighted Average</b>	<b>25.01</b>	<b>26.25</b>	<b>28.46</b>		

Source: IFPRI 2015.

Notes: \* The number in parentheses indicates the number of countries in the sub-region for which public expenditure data are available. \*\* Data for these countries are from 2010.



## Annex C.2 Illicit financial flows from Africa, 2003-2012

Sub-region	Country	Illicit Financial Flows (millions of USD, nominal)
NA (5)	Algeria	15753
	Egypt	37680
	Libya	10783
	Morocco	9977
	Tunisia	277
EA (10)	Comoros	440
	Djibouti	3540
	Ethiopia	22065
	Kenya	860
	Madagascar	4257
	Mauritius	1532
	Rwanda	2603
	Sudan	12904
	Tanzania	4618
Uganda	7125	
WA (15)	Benin	413
	Burkina Faso	3408
	Cabo Verde	395
	Côte d'Ivoire	24061
	Gambia, The	606
	Ghana	3164
	Guinea	3169
	Guinea-Bissau	583
	Liberia	9817
	Mali	4106
	Niger	1365
	Nigeria	157455
	Senegal	15
	Sierra Leone	713
Togo	18243	
CA (9)	Burundi	750
	Cameroon	7825
	CAR	175
	Chad	9297
	Congo	15346
	DRC	3012
	Equatorial Guinea	16065
	Gabon	3584
	São Tomé and Príncipe	180

... continued **Annex C.2** Illicit financial flows from Africa, 2003-2012

Sub-region	Country	Illicit Financial Flows (millions of USD, nominal)
SA (10)	Angola	6312
	Botswana	8560
	Eswatini (formerly Swaziland)	3710
	Lesotho	2487
	Malawi	5847
	Mozambique	1155
	Namibia	6032
	South Africa	122145
	Zambia	25969
	Zimbabwe	2673
	<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>603051</b>

Source: Kar and Spanjers 2014.

## Annex C.3 Countries grouped by natural resources status

Oil exporters	Oil importers		
Algeria	Benin	Guinea	Rwanda
Angola	Botswana	Guinea-Bissau	São Tomé and Príncipe
Cameroon	Burkina Faso	Kenya	Senegal
Chad	Burundi	Lesotho	Seychelles
Congo Republic	Cabo Verde	Liberia	Sierra Leone
Côte d'Ivoire	Central African Republic	Madagascar	Somalia
Congo DRC	Comoros	Malawi	South Africa
Equatorial Guinea	Djibouti	Mali	Tanzania
Gabon	Egypt	Mauritania	Togo
Ghana	Eritrea	Mauritius	Tunisia
Libya	Eswatini	Morocco	Uganda
Niger	Ethiopia	Mozambique	Zambia
Nigeria	Gambia	Namibia	Zimbabwe
Sudan			

Note: Oil exporters are countries with oil exports at least 20 per cent higher than their oil imports.

Groupings are based on UNCTAD trade data for 2012 and 2013 (SITC 33 for oil and SITC 27 +28 +32 +34 +35 +68 +667 +971 for minerals).

Mineral-rich countries	Mineral-poor countries	
Algeria	Mauritania	Angola
Benin	Madagascar	Burundi
Botswana	Mozambique	Cameroon
Burkina Faso	Namibia	Cabo Verde
Central African Republic	Niger	Chad
Democratic Republic of Congo	Rwanda	Comoros
Djibouti	Sierra Leone	Republic of Congo
Equatorial Guinea	South Africa	Côte d'Ivoire
Eritrea	Sudan	Egypt
Guinea	Tanzania	Eswatini
Lesotho	Togo	Ethiopia
Liberia	Zambia	Gabon
Mali	Zimbabwe	Gambia
		Ghana
		Guinea-Bissau
		Kenya
		Libya
		Malawi
		Mauritius
		Morocco
		Nigeria
		São Tomé and Príncipe
		Senegal
		Seychelles
		Somalia
		Tunisia
		Uganda

Note: Mineral-rich countries are those where mineral exports account for more than 20 per cent of total exports.

Groupings are based on UNCTAD trade data for 2012 and 2013 (SITC 33 for oil and SITC 27 +28 +32 +34 +35 +68 +667 +971 for minerals).







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